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Transporting the Poor to Work

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President Submits Manpower Report

President Nixon has directed the Secretary of Labor to recommend new mechanisms for assessing the manpower effects of Government actions.

In transmitting his Manpower Report to Congress, the President said "there is hardly any major aspect of government policy which does not significantly affect the utilization, size, and skills of the . . . work force. . . . Both the efficiency of our economy and the well-being of the country's workers will be served by more systematic assessment of the manpower consequences of government policies and programs." He directed the Labor Secretary to recommend methods to achieve the assessment and ways to assure that the "findings receive appropriate attention in the government's decisionmaking processes."

The opening chapter of the 1972 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT discusses the sharp effects on the work force of Federal actions in fields as diverse as immigration, public assistance, national defense, health, housing, and wage policy.

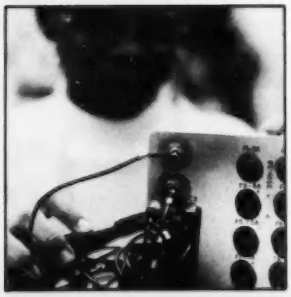
Other chapters deal with:

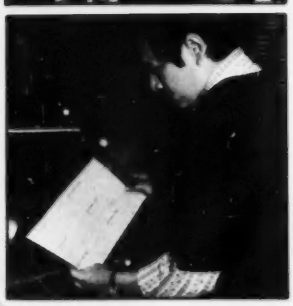
- The employment and unemployment record during 1971.
- Recent developments in manpower programs, including the new Public Employment Program.
- New perspectives on youth unemployment, its causes and implications, and ways of achieving a more effective school-to-work transition.
- Manpower issues in the professions and higher education.

The report also contains the President's special message to the Congress in February 1972 urging enactment of a Manpower Revenue Sharing Act. There are two appendixes—a progress report on job matching and labor market information programs and an extensive appendix of manpower and related statistics.

Highlights of the report will be carried in the June issue of MANPOWER.

Copies of the 284-page report may be obtained for $2.25 from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.





articles

2 Transporting the Poor to Work Harold Bigler and Eugene Keith
Test projects seek ways to take inner-city residents to suburban jobs

9 The Urban Crisis—Reality or Myth? Edward C. Banfield
Despite stubborn problems, urbanologist sees steady improvement in city conditions

14 Profiling Alaska's Native Manpower Ernie Hood
Survey teams visit isolated villages to develop human resources inventory

23 IBM in the Ghetto: Anatomy of a Success Robert Schrank and Susan Stein
Work force proves stable, competent, but city red tape takes some unraveling

27 Young Man in a Hurry
Street-corner tip leads Chicano to Job Corps and new lease on life

28 Young Migrants Harvest Diplomas William Cole
Classes on college campuses help dropouts complete high school

departments

21 News & Notes

22 Words & Figures

33 Publications

COVER: Richard Mathews, Arts and Graphics Division, U.S. Department of Labor.

J. D. Hodgson
Secretary of Labor

Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr.
Assistant Secretary for Manpower

Paul J. Fasser, Jr.
Deputy Assistant Secretary for Manpower and Manpower Administrator

Ellis Rottman, *editor*
Emil Michael Aun, *associate editor*
Patricia Marshall, *assistant editor*
Richard Mathews, *art director*

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Transporting the Poor to Work

by Harold Bigler and Eugene Keith

Test Projects Seek Ways to Take Inner-City Residents to Suburban Jobs

On winter mornings Ronella Faulkner arises in her three-room dwelling on Chicago's South Side some 4½ hours before dawn. She has a quiet and solitary glass of milk, gets herself ready for the day, and hurries out into the freezing air and soot-sprinkled snow.

A block from her lodgings she boards the first of four public conveyances she must use on her way to work. Every morning she rides first a bus, then an elevated, then another elevated, and finally another bus. She is due at her job at 5:30; she usually arrives at least 10 minutes early, after an hour and a half of travel.

Mr. Bigler and Mr. Keith are members of BKM&S, a Washington-based communication and public affairs organization.

And Ronella Faulkner considers herself very lucky.

This 22-year-old mother is a "reverse commuter." That is, she doesn't join the mighty flow inward from the suburbs in the morning and outward from the city at night. Instead, she lives in the city and works in the suburbs—at O'Hare International Airport as a food server in the employee cafeteria. So at both ends of the day she travels against the main stream of traffic.

One of the principal ingredients in her happy frame of mind is the O'Harexpress —the last bus she takes each morning, the first she boards in the afternoon. It whisks her 10 miles in 20 minutes or less —and for only 20 cents.

The O'Harexpress, which began operation in February 1970, constitutes one of the best practical results of a federally funded transportation experiment in 14 areas across the Nation. Backed by $7.5 million in Federal funds, the experiment centered on the problem of bringing together the unemployed of the inner cities and the new jobs in the expanding suburbs. A number of studies have shown that jobs are expanding much faster in the suburbs than in the cities.

That is what brought about the need for "reverse commute" transportation. In 1960, 7 percent of all work trips were reverse commuting, researchers estimate, and by 1985 that will double. "An important factor in the high unemployment rate of minorities is to be found in the lack of transportation between homes and jobs," the report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders said. Some people were spending as much as 5 hours a day going to and from jobs that paid $1.65 an hour.

The marked transformation in metropolitan areas was brought violently to America's attention in 1965 by the Watts riot and the other urban upheavals that followed. Among the primary causes of the Watts riot, according to a blue-ribbon commission appointed by the Governor of California to investigate it, was the "scarcity of jobs for the untrained." And the commission pointed out that the job opportunities available to Watts residents were severely restricted by the "inadequate and costly public transportation existing throughout the Los Angeles area."

The Federal Government's response to the need for better public transportation in Watts and other inner-city areas came through the Urban Mass Transportation Administration (UMTA), then a component of the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and now a part of the Department of Transportation (DOT). In 1966 UMTA launched what is now called the Service Development Grant Program.

Under the program local transit operators were offered short-term grants to establish experimental lines that would improve the access of disadvantaged peo-

ple to suburban employment. In most instances the grant was given to the local government, which planned and administered the project and arranged with the transit company to provide the service.

Los Angeles, other participating cities, and their commercial bus companies—most of which are in dire economic straits for many reasons, including the overwhelming American preference for the automobile—could not by themselves finance the cost of establishing an entirely new service that would certainly operate at a loss for an extended period. So UMTA provided 90 percent of the funding to establish on a demonstration basis the bus lines that were needed. Then, according to plan, the successful routes would be taken over by the bus companies and be integrated into the established systems.

The first project funded was in Los Angeles; others followed in St. Louis, Buffalo, Long Island, and Baltimore, and soon the list also included Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Gary, Kansas City, Omaha, the Twin Cities, and Washington. Thirteen of the 14 projects were "reverse commute" city-to-suburbs operations. Long Island alone was entirely in the suburbs—in the island's two easternmost counties, Nassau and Suffolk.

Chicago Outstanding Success

Chicago's O'Harexpress has been one of the outstanding successes of the whole program. Without it, Ronella Faulkner, for example, would have no choice but to take the airport luxury shuttle bus from downtown Chicago. Her transportation bill would be $25.50 a week, a sum that would not leave a great deal from her slender earnings, especially since she must pay a babysitter 5 days a week. With the O'Harexpress, which she has used since she started her job last year, she pays only $1.50 a day for transportation.

It would be pleasant to report that Chicago-type success crowned all the new bus lines. However, even in cities where the outlook was good it became apparent early that for every small patch of solutions, there were fertile acres of problems —expected and unexpected.

Many local project planners discovered too late that commercial bus executives should have been brought in on the planning and decisionmaking. Since they were not, their interest and enthusiasm were slight, their commitment negligible, and their contribution to success miniscule. In fact some were more likely to be part of the problem than the solution.

Administrative and organizational difficulties plagued the Los Angeles project. A consultant group hired to analyze the Los Angeles efforts criticized the layers of approvals "required of proposed plans and actions, at various levels of government and at locations spread across the Nation." Also hampering the Los Angeles project, according to the consultants, were a shift in partial responsibility for urban transit from HUD to DOT, lack of adequate staff in DOT to handle the public transit program, and failure of the working-level staffs at DOT and HUD to reflect the enthusiasm for the projects expressed by top executives of the departments.

Most of the projects ran into trouble with a multiplicity of competing bus lines. In Baltimore, Detroit, and Washington, for example, there were disputes between city and suburban carriers over which should provide the experimental service. The results were major modifications, delays, and curtailment of the projects' scope.

In Los Angeles, it was found that East Los Angeles residents could not reach most of the southern half of the city except by inadequate three-or-four vehicle service involving separately operated lines. It took 90 minutes to go 7 miles. And the "double-fare barrier" was an acute irritation in Los Angeles and elsewhere: There were no free or low-cost transfers between separately operated lines. Efforts to solve such problems were only partially successful, at best.

"Suburban sprawl" of industrial job centers was a vexing handicap in virtually every city. Many project officials must have yearned for a situation where a bus could travel from one central terminal, convenient to all inner-city dwellers, out to a single, vast employment complex in the suburbs. Instead, the bus drivers found themselves stopping at one plant after another to pick up or discharge only one or two passengers.

Linked with that is the problem of the "automobile-oriented society." On Long Island, surveyors found that only 1 percent of travel was by public conveyance.

In transit-short Los Angeles, the experimental project led to permanent development of the Century Boulevard line, which connects residents of South Central Los Angeles with job opportunities in other parts of the sprawling metropolis.

Reverse commuter Edmond Dixon (top left) pilots a sweeper-scrubber through an air freight hanger at O'Hare International Airport. Dixon finds riding the bus between his South Side Chicago home and the airport "much more relaxing" than fighting the traffic in his own car. Ronella Faulkner (right) arrives aboard the O'Hare express for her day's work (bottom left) in the employee cafeteria at O'Hare Airport.

Telephone inquiries about routes, schedules, fares, and other matters pertaining to Long Island's experimental bus services were handled at an information center (left) set up on the C. W. Post Campus of Long Island University. On Long Island, small passenger vehicles equipped with two-way radios (center) were used to supply transportation at 25 cents a ride to low-income members of the Bellport Neighborhood Opportunity Center. Dispatched from the center, the vehicles provided transportation for shopping, recreation, and medical appointments as well as to take people to and from work. The operation proved to be economically unfeasible.

Project officials in Los Angeles ran across employers who made it clear that they did not want employees who couldn't travel by automobile. In Gary, car pools flourished to such an extent that they were a serious competitive problem for the project bus. However, most of those who were riding the bus depended wholly on it to hold their jobs; because of swing-shift complications or other reasons, they could not join car pools.

The projects encountered a variety of other difficulties. The U.S. Department of Labor ruled that under the labor protection clause of the 1964 Mass Transportation Act only transit companies that paid prevailing area wage rates could participate in the program.

The economic anemia afflicting the mass transit industry made many firms reluctant to participate in projects that involved a large element of experimentation, research, and development.

Fear of crime or distaste for exposure to the elements caused some potential riders to shun the bus service offered, particularly those who had to walk some distance or wait for a bus at night or early in the morning.

Customer attrition was a fact of life for virtually all the project bus lines. The monthly "dropout" figures ranged from 4 percent in Baltimore to 11 percent in Omaha, according to John L. Crain, an urban and transportation specialist who analyzed the projects for the Stanford Research Institute. Buffalo found that new riders could be expected to use the buses for upward of 20 weeks before joining a car pool, obtaining their own cars, or discontinuing use of the bus for any other reason, such as loss of their jobs. Of course, if a rider obtained other transportation that he preferred over the bus, the loss of his patronage was no "failure." The project had indeed succeeded in connecting him with a job. But attrition was a relatively serious economic problem.

In a very real sense, one of the worst problems of all was borne individually by many rider-participants. They got their jobs through the new bus service, relied on it for their transportation, then saw the bus line suddenly disappear when the project funds ran out. An undetermined number lost their jobs as a result.

Beatrice Lyles of Buffalo spoke for that group when she wrote her Congressman a letter:

"The employees at West Seneca State School who were dependent on the JOTT (Job Opportunities Through Transportation) bus are desperate. The original JOTT bus route, which afforded transportation through the core areas of Buffalo and Lackawanna was scrapped. . . . We are agonized at the thought that we may lose our jobs for lack of a dependable way to reach them."

Buffalo's JOTT program had provided bus routes to various job sites 20-25 miles from the city center. The West Seneca bus stopped when the Federal grant ended, because Buffalo had not been successful in negotiating it into permanent status. That was one reason for Buffalo being listed among the 36 percent of the projects considered to be failures in the Stanford Research Institute analysis of the overall program.

Despite the demise of the bus service Beatrice Lyles still has her job at Seneca School. She contrived a makeshift car pool as the only alternative to a $7.50 taxi trip. Occasionally she has to pay the $7.50, and her commuting life is complicated by work shift changes and college-credit courses she is taking at night.

Benefits to Individuals Vary

A Seneca School personnel official is bitter about Buffalo's abandonment of the JOTT program. He helped in setting up the West Seneca line and says that substitute transportation is "abominable." When it was operating, "JOTT service was great." The school had plans for expanding use of the service. Instead, it is again faced with the problems of absenteeism, late arrivals, and reduced employee morale.

John Crain believes that, under the circumstances, experiences such as that in Buffalo are inevitable. "Using the demonstration approach to develop transportation for the poor is at best a difficult and frustrating chore," Crain said. "Generally, we are asking the poor ghetto dweller, with his lifetime of disappointments and failures, to rise up early in the morning, to undertake a long commute via a public vehicle to a job in alien territory—white suburbia—and often to receive marginal wages. And on the second work day he may find a car pool and forget forever the bus service we have so painfully developed."

When a city-wide project—or one or more bus lines in a project—did succeed, the local benefits included broader job opportunities for the poor, easing of racial tensions, reduced welfare payments, and relief of highway congestion. And whether the project succeeded or failed, there was a considerable increase in knowledge about the workings of the local labor market as well as area transportation needs.

That the benefits to individuals from improved home-to-work transportation can vary greatly is demonstrated by the case of Edmond Dixon and the O'Harexpress. He did not get his job because of the new service, nor would he lose his job if the service ended. Yet he regards it as a lifesaver.

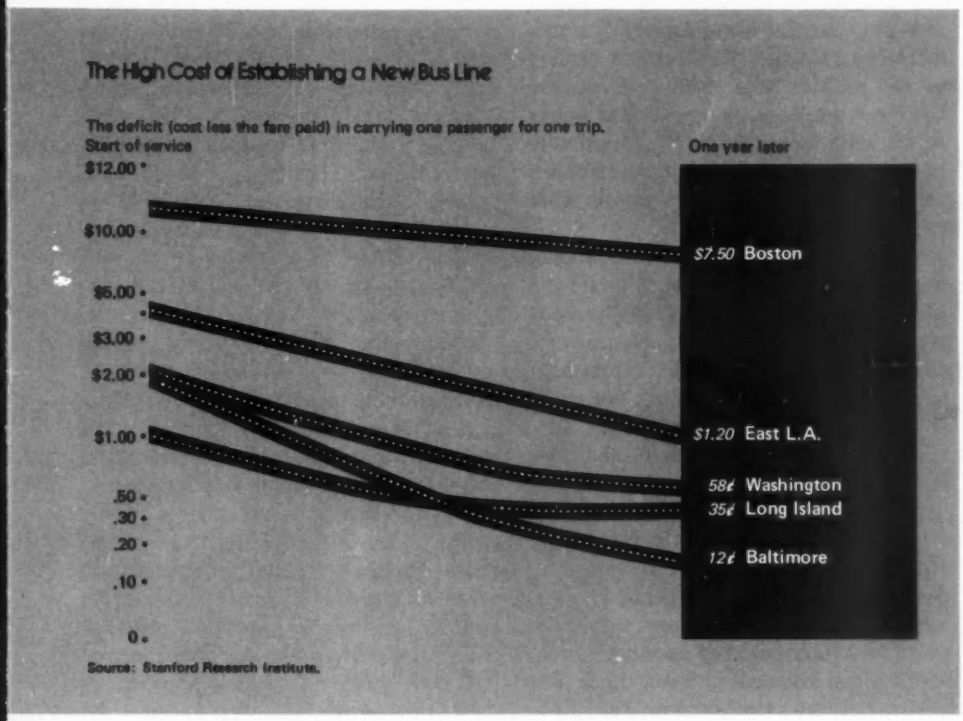
Dixon is a 64-year-old cargo handler for American Airlines. Like Ronella Faulkner, he lives on Chicago's South Side, and at one time his job with American was at Midway Airport, only about 6 miles west of his home. But 9 years ago he was transferred to O'Hare (where 18,000 people now work), which is nearly 30 miles away. For Dixon, the flight of business to the suburbs became a very personal matter.

"I drove my car; I didn't have any choice," he said. "It was rough—the traffic; the snow and ice in the winter. I was all tired out every day; I was a wreck."

He heard about the O'Harexpress from fellow employees shortly after it started, and he began using it immediately. "It's the greatest thing that ever happened to me," Dixon said. "It's much more relaxing; I can read the paper or take a nap. Everything about that bus is just wonderful."

The transit fare is cheaper than driving a car, and the time he spends on public transportation is less than he often used to take in driving. But the largest benefit in this case is turning a tired "wreck" into a happy worker and human being.

Chicago's project was considered a complete success. Only one other city—Cleveland—was given a firm 100 percent rating in an early analysis prepared by the Stanford Research Institute. Cleveland—which transformed a short-duration Government-funded program into a privately financed permanent service—put heavy



emphasis on securing employer cooperation (particularly Jones & Laughlin Steel, which had 5,000 jobs), on multi-use buses (encouraging suburban commuters as well as disadvantaged workers to use them), and on flexible, small-vehicle service.

For rating purposes, the Institute defined "success" in terms of the answers to a single question: "Did the Federal grant lead to development of a permanent transit connection between the jobless and the jobs?"

The economic success of each new bus line depended on gradual reduction of the carrier's operating deficit. Every line had a deficit to begin with. Boston's initial deficit was nearly $11 per passenger per trip. Baltimore started with a relatively modest $2 deficit and in 1 year worked it down to less than 15 cents. The Institute did not limit "success" to bus lines that wiped out all deficits. Rather, the aim was to reduce operating losses to a point where local agencies could provide financial guarantees for permanent operation.

All told, indications were that 59 percent of the Federal grant expenditures resulted in permanent route development or routes that were likely to become permanent.

Obviously, success can be measured in a variety of ways. In cities branded as failures there are hundreds of reverse commuters who got their jobs because of a new bus line, used it in the critical period (which Cleveland defines as the first 30 days on the job) and then, when the project terminated unsuccessfully, found other transportation.

Local Commitment Vital

Influence on suburban employers and on commercial bus operators can be counted as plus factors; so can the arousing of concern in entire communities through news coverage of the projects. And there is no doubt that data compiled by the "failures" are valuable for the future.

Three factors intimately involved in success or failure were the degree of commitment on the part of local project officials and transit company managers, the skill and imagination employed in promotion, advertising, and distribution of information, and the development of several types of patronage (not just reverse commuters) for the new bus lines.

Urban Mass Transportation Administration staff members feel that commitment was an ingredient of success that hardly could be overemphasized. Projects created merely as expedient responses to ghetto problems were likely to be self-defeating.

Getting information about the new bus service to the people who needed and wanted it was crucial. Project managers were surprised to find that even dire need did not assure public patronage. A tremendous amount of effort was required in nearly every city just to make people aware of the service. But conventional forms of advertising and promotion—radio, television, newspapers—didn't work. Personal contact proved to be the most efficient form of communication.

In Baltimore "JET (Job Express Transportation) Reps" did the job of promoting the new bus service. The JET Reps were a group of young people who circulated throughout the city talking to anybody who would listen and distributing posters, press releases, and route and schedule information to schools, churches, recreation centers, and even barber shops. Some covered the business sector while others concentrated on inner-city residential areas.

In addition to recruiting customers, JET Reps rode the buses—outgoing and incoming—to get riders' reactions. The information thus gathered was used to redesign schedules and service. The resultant flexibility of the entire system was a major factor in JET success, and JET Reps served as a model for other project cities.

The Long Island project advertised its service through "mobile offices"—vans equipped with public address systems. The vans cruising the neighborhoods were staffed with job counselors and social service personnel qualified to tell the people about the new jobs and how to reach them. The mobile information-counseling services were particularly needed on Long Island because the jobless were so widely scattered. The services were sponsored by the county economic opportunity councils. The van staffs actually assisted in planning the new bus routes, and their counseling covered welfare, legal aid, and education as well as transportation and job-finding.

The new routes established by the various projects had a much better chance of surviving if, in addition to carrying the poor to and from jobs, they were used for shopping, for suburbs-to-city commuting, for transportation to day-care centers,

senior citizen activities, and recreation and education facilities, and for other purposes.

For example, Washington and the Twin Cities catered to inbound commuter traffic, and Chicago accommodated air travelers as well as people employed at O'Hare Airport. Of the eight cities accorded a "success" rating, six were multi-use projects.

UMTA, and the local governments, naturally wanted to see the projects succeed. But what they wanted most of all was answers. The reverse commute experiments, indeed, were never designed or expected to solve the unemployment problems of the cities involved. Rather, they were expected to point the way, to red-flag pitfalls, to provide useful data.

Here are a few of the answers that $7.5 million in Federal funds brought forth:

- The Los Angeles project "did not demonstrate that providing transportation for the jobless cures unemployment, but did underline . . . that adequate transportation is a necessary—but not a sufficient —condition for people to have access to job opportunities," a University of California professor said in a project report. Reports on other projects repeatedly emphasized that transportation is only part of the problem.
- The projects at best helped only a small fraction of the jobless in their cities. In the Los Angeles project area, for instance, there were 30,000 unemployed and underemployed; but the project was able to help less than 800 people a year. In fact, Stanford Research's John Crain estimated that the busing approach would reach only 10 to 15 percent of the poverty transportation problem even if it were well organized in every American city.
- "Reverse commute transit service does not appear to be a potential profit center of any significant proportions for the mass transit industry," according to Crain. And he calls that "the single most important finding" of the experimental projects. Crain noted that although the projects' successes exceeded failures, most of the successful developments wound up with an "acceptably small loss," not a profit. The major reason, he said, was the sprawling automobile orientation of suburban industry.
- The need for better regional governmental machinery became clearly evident as the projects progressed. The worker has legal residence in the city but works in the suburb; how should responsibility be shared? Should both city and suburb help pay project costs, and if so, on what ratio?
- The potential of nonconventional transportation in helping to alleviate the job transportation problems of the poor merits further investigation. Nonconventional transportation includes supplementary bus lines providing service not available from existing public transit; "jitneys;" and "dial-a-bus" and other demand-actuated systems.

Jitneys (so-called because when they were popular in America the fare was a nickel—or a jitney) usually are privately owned—and often owner-operated—cars, station wagons, or small buses that ply a prescribed route carrying passengers for a nominal fee. Long out of favor, jitneys are getting renewed attention now. San Francisco and Atlantic City have been using jitneys for many years.

Unusual Modes Tested

The "dial-a-bus" concept attempts to combine the door-to-door service of taxis with the lower fares of scheduled buses. Normally, a customer initiates action by telephoning the dispatch center. The dispatcher, using a computer, determines which vehicle can best serve the request, what route it should take, and how soon the customer can expect the bus. He reports to the customer, who is still on the phone. Vehicle drivers keep in touch with the center by radio.

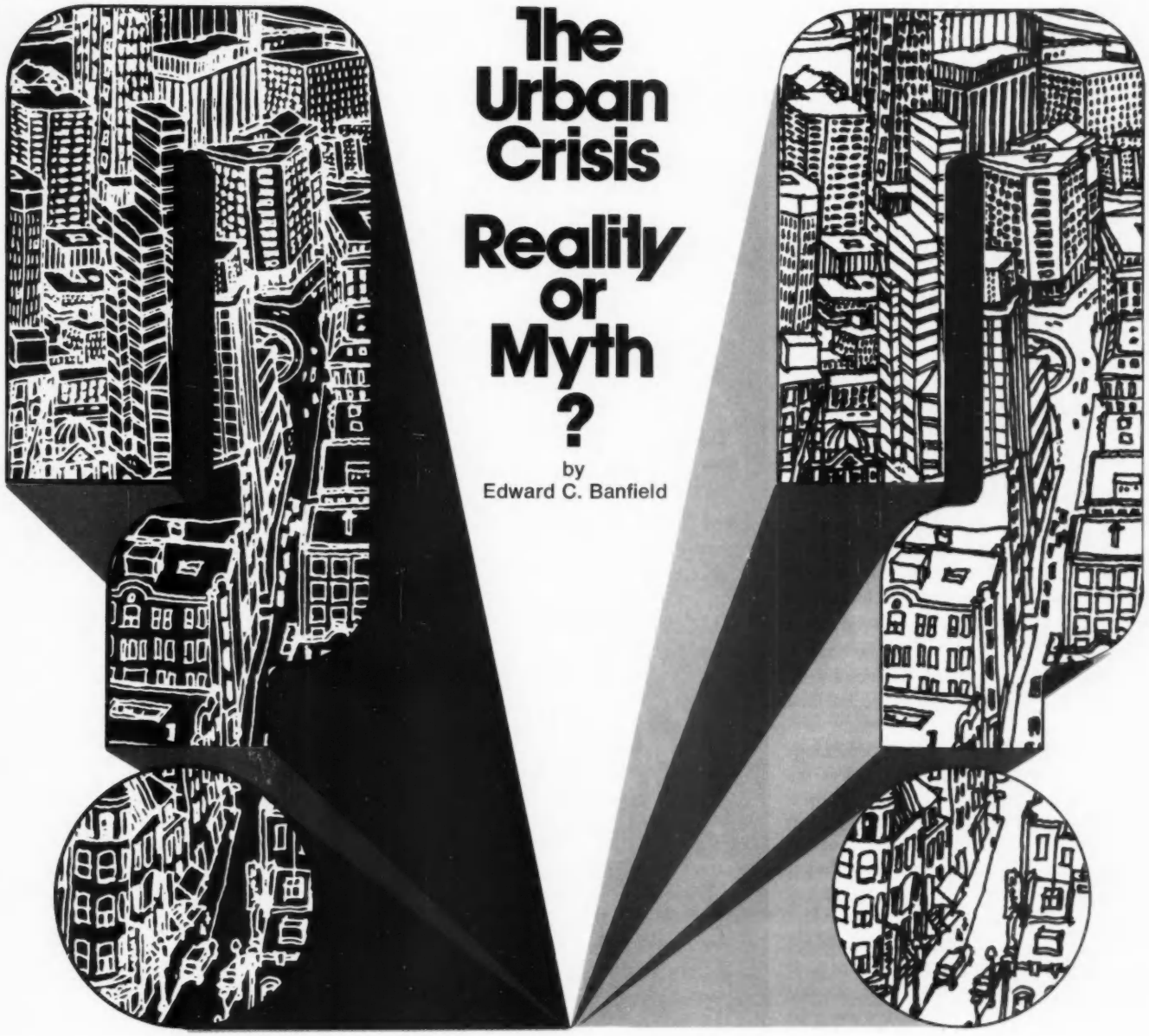
Los Angeles experimented extensively with nonconventional transportation, primarily small buses running from central pools to special employment areas. The goal was low-cost, personalized service—virtually expanded car pools—to take people to jobs on all work shifts that could not reasonably be reached by public transportation. The service was run by nonprofit community groups and the part-time drivers were selected from among the passengers. The cost of the "community bus systems" was substantially higher than expected, and they had to be abandoned.

Despite the disappointing results of the Los Angeles experiment, California transportation experts do not believe the concept of nonconventional service is fruitless or unworkable. Long Island project directors felt such service was sorely needed; so did the Cleveland group. Buffalo reported, "Jitney service would be a more adequate and less costly way (than transit buses) to provide transportation between inner-city pickup points and suburban work sites where stable work patterns can be expected." A critique on the whole program predicted that the poverty transportation problem would never be solved without nonconventional systems. It must be acknowledged, however, that as yet no one has proposed a realistic method for incorporating such service into existing systems.

Car pools, of course, could be classified as "nonconventional transportation." Many employers, particularly in areas such as Los Angeles, actively encourage them. Bus riders in the experimental projects showed that they approve of them; they generally tended to leave the bus for car pools as soon as they could. But the Long Island project report argued that car pools are not satisfactory because of drivers who have unreliable attendance records. As Beatrice Lyles' employer outside Buffalo commented: "With a car pool you have six people late or absent, instead of just one."

The difference of opinion over car pools underlines the fact that despite the mass of data compiled in the $7.5 million experiment, all the answers are not in yet. Moreover, with the job market tighter today than it was when the projects were initiated, there is less demand and less need for emphasis on reverse commuting. The Service Development Grant Program now has taken on a broader focus. Today's target is people who are "transit deprived." They include the elderly, the young, and the handicapped—as well as the inner-city unemployed and underemployed.

But as employment picks up, public pressure is likely to refocus attention on the jobless of the inner city. And renewed emphasis on reverse commuting should find transit companies, local governments, and Federal agencies far better prepared to meet the challenge effectively than they were when violence erupted in Watts in the summer of 1965. □



The Urban Crisis Reality or Myth?

by
Edward C. Banfield

Many people who ought to know better seem to think that the American city is well on the way toward becoming a sort of mass graveyard. A students' assembly, meeting a couple of years ago on "The States and the Urban Crisis," came to this conclusion:

"Conditions in American cities have degenerated to the point that, unless the strongest immediate measures are taken . . ., the conditions of all major urban areas —in which 175 million Americans now live—will be unbearable for all within a few years."

What can such language possibly mean? In the first place the figure used is wildly in error: 175 million is the number living in "urban places," which the census defines as those of 2,500 or more population. If by "major urban areas" one means cities of 100,000 or more, the correct figure is 56 million. Most of these millions live in comfortable housing and in pleasant neighborhoods. It is true that some conditions—notably youth unrest, drug abuse, and crime and delinquency — have been and probably still are worsening almost everywhere. But taking "conditions" and "cities" in general there can be no doubt that matters have long been improving and will continue to do so unless (this is an important qualification, I am afraid) crisis-mongers like those quoted above manage to convince the mass of people that life in the city is really unbearable.

Perhaps what the writers had in mind

Dr. Banfield is William R. Kenan, Jr., professor at the University of Pennsylvania and author of numerous books on urban affairs, the most recent of which is *The Unheavenly City—The Nature and Future of Our Urban Crisis.*

was not "all major urban areas" but those parts of cities that are mainly or exclusively occupied by the poor, the black, Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, and other low-status groups. If so, they were talking mainly about the inner districts of the 20 or so largest cities along with parts of many of the larger, older suburbs. The total population of these districts depends on where one draws the lines, but it is hard to see how it could be much more than 5 percent of the 175 million referred to above.

Urban Conditions Improving

Even if one concerns oneself only with the poor and the black, it is clear that in many important respects urban conditions have been improving at an unprecedented rate:

- In metropolitan areas the percentage of the population with incomes below the official poverty line decreased by one-third during the 1960's (from 15 percent to 10 percent).
- Three-fourths of the blacks in these areas were not poor by this standard in 1970.
- The median income of young intact black families in the northern and western regions was 99 percent of that of comparable white families in 1970. (Among the black families, however, 7 out of 10 wives worked whereas among the whites only 5 out of 10 worked.)
- The percentage of housing occupied by Negroes in central cities and described by the census as "Not Meeting Specified Criteria" dropped from 25 percent in 1960 to 9 percent in 1968.
- In the last 20 years the schooling of the average black parent increased from 7 years to 11 years.

These gains will continue and at an accelerating rate as our society accumulates capital. Today the Gross National Product is about $1 trillion; 10 years hence it is expected to be $1.4 trillion and by the year

'...some conditions—notably youth unrest, drug abuse, and crime and delinquency—have been and probably still are worsening almost everywhere.'

2000 it is expected to rise to $2.6 trillion. (The figures are in constant dollars.) To bring all incomes above the present poverty line will therefore require an ever smaller —and soon a trivial—proportion of the national income.

To all of this the critic may respond, "Income measured in money is not what matters. What does matter is the quality of life." This is a hard argument to answer; since no one can say just what is meant by the words "quality of life," there are no measures of it. However, most city dwellers seem to be reasonably well satisfied with their neighborhoods. A survey commissioned by the city of Detroit and conducted in 1968 by the Center for Urban Studies of the University of Michigan revealed that 25 percent of those surveyed disliked nothing about their neighborhoods. The poor, the poorly educated, and the black, incidentally, liked or disliked their neighborhoods on about the same grounds and in about the same degree as the well-off, the well educated, and the white.

Residential racial segregation seems to be increasing in the cities and this may be a minus that should wipe out some or even all of the pluses that I have listed. I say "may" because there is no way to judge how much of the segregation reflects racial prejudice. Demographers use the word "segregation" to refer to any separation, not simply that resulting from racial prejudice; some of it is surely voluntary—like other people, blacks may prefer living near relatives and friends.

Even when segregation is not voluntary one cannot be sure that the primary cause is racial. Much of what looks like racial discrimination may actually be discrimination on the basis of income or style of life. Blacks as well as whites often object to having neighbors whom they think, rightly or wrongly, will lower the "tone" of the neighborhood or become a nuisance of some sort.

Unquestionably many blacks, and to a lesser extent other minority groups, do suffer from racial discrimination. It is nevertheless a fact—I would say the most conspicuous fact of our time—that racial bigotry has decreased immeasurably in this country since World War II. This is perfectly obvious to anyone whose memory goes back a few years, and it has been documented time and time again by public opinion polls.

In December, the National Opinion Research Center reported that an anti-integration backlash "does not exist" and a week or two earlier the Gallup Poll reported that 70 percent of Americans said they would vote for a qualified black for President, whereas only 38 percent had said that in 1958.

Problems Aren't Racial

The attitudes of whites, moreover, make less difference than they used to, for blacks are now effectively in possession of the ballot. Some 1,500 blacks occupy local, State, and national elective offices in 41 States. In all large cities black voters and politicians are a force to be reckoned with and their power is bound to increase.

"White racism" is still a fact, but it is no longer the decisive one. Other factors are more important in accounting for the disadvantages under which black people labor. This is evident from a study (reported in the June 1970 issue of the AMERICAN ECONOMIC REVIEW) in which James Gwartney, using 1953 data, shows that factors (years of schooling, achievement in school, State of residence, size of city, and age) other than discrimination accounted for about 80 to 90 percent of the difference between Negro and white earnings in the North and for about 70 to 80 percent in the South. To be sure, mistreatment in the past accounts largely if not wholly for the Negro's poorer schooling. The point is, however, that present discrimination is of relatively little importance.

That the problems of the cities are not essentially racial seems clear to me on at least two grounds. First, cities had the same kinds of problems when hardly any Negroes lived in them (indeed there are some small- and medium-sized cities today that have the problems but have few blacks). Second, it is obvious that if all blacks turned white overnight, making discrimination on color grounds physically impossible, the problems of the cities (except of course racial injustice itself) would continue to exist for a long time to come. There would still be slums, crime, pollution, congestion, and so on. Desirable as it is, the end of racial injustice would not make life in the cities bearable from the standpoint of its critics.

Those who cry "crisis" are apt to blame "those in power" and thus ultimately the voter for whatever is wrong. The trouble is, they say, that "the people" will not submit to being taxed or even inconvenienced in order to solve problems of even the most urgent sort.

There are certainly some problems that could be much alleviated if it were not for the unwillingness of the public, or even of some interest groups, to support the necessary measures. City traffic congestion, for example, is mostly a rush-hour problem and it could be practically eliminated almost everywhere by simple measures such as staggering work hours in offices and factories, permitting jitneys to operate, and charging higher fees for rush-hour use of bridges, tunnels, and highways. But it is misleading, to say the least, to suggest that taxpayers have failed to support improvement of local public services in general.

As the President pointed out in a message to Congress a year ago, State and local government expenditures "have increased twelvefold, from a mere $11 billion in 1946 to an estimated $132 billion in 1970." In that same time, the President

'...it is clear that in many important respects urban conditions have been improving at an unprecedented rate'

pointed out, our personal spending and even spending by the Federal Government have climbed at less than one-third that rate. The fact is that State and local governments have long been the fastest growing sector of the economy. The main limitation on some of the most important programs—Model Cities is a case in point—is not lack of appropriations but rather the inability of the cities to agree upon projects for which the available money can be spent.

With respect to the most serious problems of the cities, the main difficulty is lack of agreement about what to do. This results largely from uncertainty about what will work. The simple fact is that we do not solve our problems because we do not know how to solve them. Our failure to give the slum child a decent education, for example, does not reflect the niggardliness of the taxpayer but the inherent difficulty of the problem. In New York City the per pupil expenditure is $1,300 a year (the highest of any large city, I believe).

School Facilities Equal

The Coleman Report of a few years ago (*Equality of Educational Opportunity*) reported that there is very little difference within a metropolitan area in the facilities of schools attended by poor blacks and by middle income whites and that such differences as do exist sometimes favor the black children. Indeed one of the main findings of the report, one of the largest and best designed pieces of social research ever undertaken, was that most of the factors significantly influencing the achievement of pupils lie altogether outside the school.

The sad truth is that no one knows how to give the slum child a decent education. No one knows how to check the rising tide of delinquency and crime. No one knows how to train the unmotivated worker. No one knows how to get full employment without inflation. The list could be extended almost indefinitely.

I am not contending that no serious social problem can ever be solved and that there is no use trying. On the contrary, I believe we should try very energetically, although certainly not in the pin-the-tail-on-the-donkey fashion that we generally employ. We should evaluate government programs very carefully and discard those which do not produce benefits at least equal to their costs. At the same time we should be adventuresome in devising and trying out new measures that we have reason to suppose may work. The Administration's decision to experiment with the school voucher plan in several cities exemplifies the approach that is needed in many fields. (As most readers probably know by now, the plan is to give parents of elementary school children vouchers to pay for their children's schooling at the public or private school chosen by the parents.)

Those who assert that callousness, indifference, or selfishness account for the persistence of city problems imply—when they do not say it in so many words—that ours is a "sick society" and perhaps "not worth saving."

A look abroad in almost any direction is enough to show that the problems of the American city do not arise from any special defect of the American character. Essentially the same problems exist, although not always in the same degree, in other urbanized countries.

In England, where I am as I write this, there are urban problems strikingly like ours. The newspaper recently carried a story with the headline "London Fight With Suburbs Predicted"; the fight, it appears, will be over a plan to move thousands of families out of the central areas where conditions are described as apalling. In the same issue of the paper, under the headline "Peril in Our School Failures," I find that "there is still no solution to the problem of the 'inner city child.'" And on the same page an article quotes charges of "an unholy alliance" between Right and Left to use the school voucher plan "to push working-class children to the bottom of the heap." Only a few days ago it was announced that a 14 percent rise in crimes of violence occurred in the first 9 months of 1971 and hardly a day passes without news or comment about violence in schools.

It is safe to say that the problems of American cities in many instances reflect conditions that are characteristic of modernity—for example, the breakdown of religious and traditional authority, including that of the family. I do not believe that such fundamental tendencies can be checked or redirected by any sort of social engineering.

Government Role Discussed

There are, however, some things that government can do to improve matters. Among the most important, it seems to me, are these:

- See to it that the economic system operates at a high level of efficiency and that it offers employment to all. High and rising incomes with good opportunities for the young, the low-skilled, and low-status are necessary (albeit not sufficient) conditions for the attainment of all other goals.
- Assure everyone access to job, housing, and other markets and to courts of law without discrimination on racial or other grounds. This implies, among other things, the elimination of minimum wage, occupational licensure laws, restrictive practices by labor unions, unrealistic educational or otherwise prejudicial hiring standards by employers, and unreasonable zoning and other land use controls.
- Reduce income inequalities insofar as possible by increasing the output of the least productive workers. The measures listed above would contribute to this.

In addition, efforts should be made to give young people more and better vocational training. I favor reducing the nor-

mal school-leaving age to 14 and encouraging subsequent training in work places. Most occupational skills are learned on the job, not in school; forcing boys and girls to remain in school when they no longer are able (or willing) to learn there tends to demoralize them and to make them incapable of doing anything useful. With respect to persons not in the labor force (the aged, the physically handicapped, and mothers with dependent children) income inequalities must necessarily be reduced by public and private assistance.

If these few general measures were taken, a great many problems that direct governmental intervention has been conspicuously unsuccessful in dealing with would soon solve themselves. For example all these measures would tend to increase the number of Negroes able to buy or rent housing in outlying or suburban neighborhoods—something not likely to be achieved by public programs having integration of the suburbs as their declared purpose.

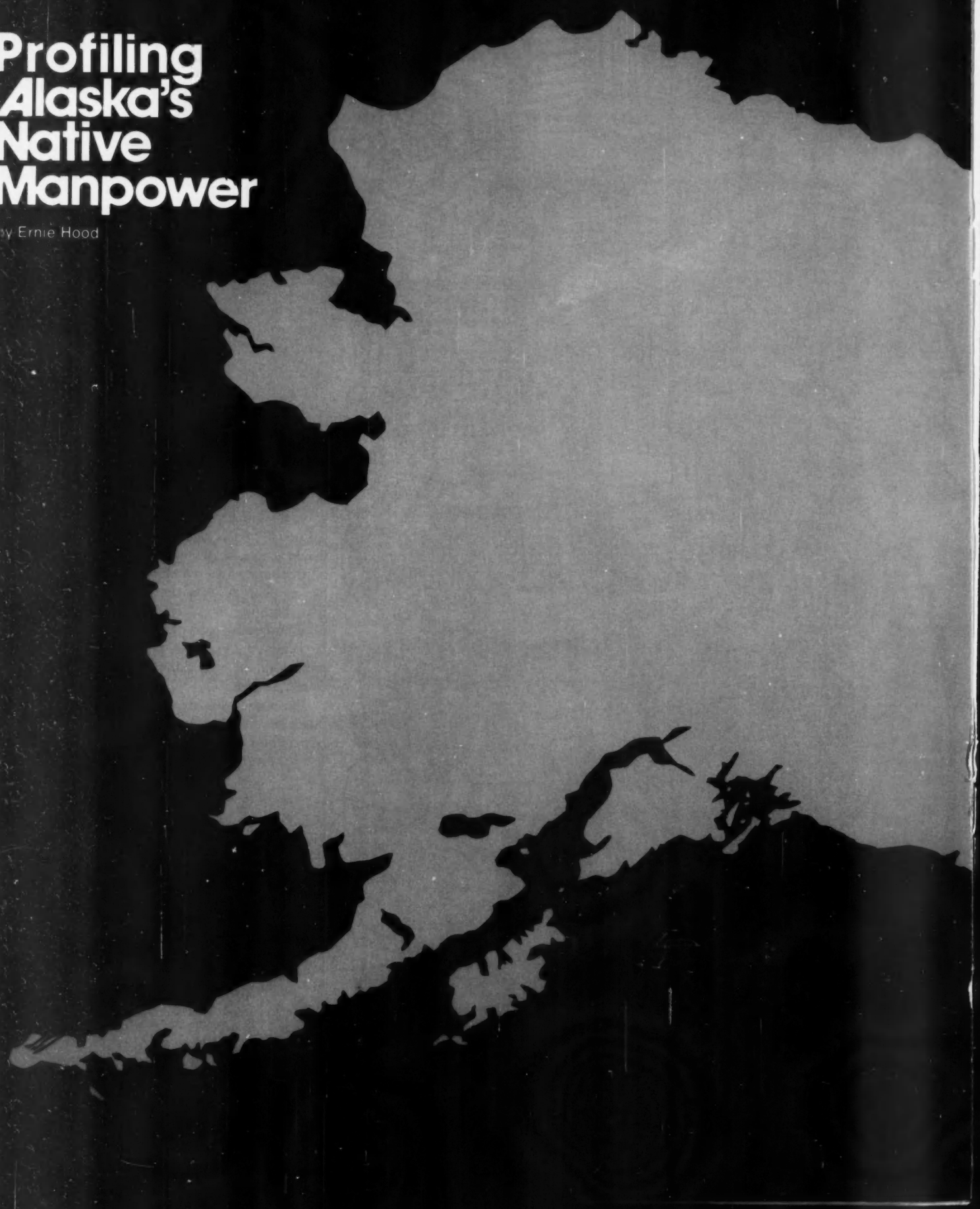
The idea of solving social problems by direct administrative action—for example, by building public housing in the suburbs—has obvious attractions. It should be clear by now, however, that the political realities of this country virtually guarantee that all such efforts will be on a token basis—and probably an unworkable one at that—if indeed they are not ruled out of the question entirely.

In our public affairs a straight line is almost never the shortest distance between two points. That is part of the price we must pay for the advantages of a political system that allows a wide range of conflicting interests to assert themselves vigorously.

In my view, an all–out effort to solve all our serious problems right away would precipitate a genuine crisis—one that our political system, resilient though it be, might not cope with succesfully. □

Profiling Alaska's Native Manpower

by Ernie Hood



Survey Teams Visit Isolated Villages to Develop Human Resources Inventory

Tom Ambrose is an Athapascan Indian. He lives with his wife, Linda, and their two children in a one-room wood house in the wilderness of west central Alaska, 200 miles east of Nome.

Ambrose is a serious man in thought and deed. His survival depends on it, because death is close at hand most of the time. His rifle and his telescope are usually within easy reach. He is only 37, but the lines in his wind-burned face are deeply etched and stretch out like the beckoning limbs of a Joshua tree.

His neighbors are few and far apart. Besides his family there are only about 200 others in his little village of Kaltag, and the nearest other village is 50 miles away.

Loneliness is ever present. Linda and the children go to bed early, but Tom often sits alone at the table and cleans and oils his 30-30 rifle by lamplight for want of anything else to do. The stillness of the Arctic night often is broken by the howls of nearby wolves, and the sled dogs of Tom's neighbors howl their answer.

Tom arises early to get the fire going to warm the house for his family. Then he grabs the rifle and takes "a look around" outside. During the day he hunts, fishes, and checks his trapline. He stalks caribou, moose, and bear with varying success, and probes for white fish through holes in the ice of the Yukon River. This is how he provides his family with a subsistence existence, wrested from nature in an icy domain where predators, terrain, and weather are all deadly opponents.

By modern standards, Tom Ambrose leads an isolated, almost primitive life. Despite his isolation, however, his is one of about 8,500 names in a newly assembled computerized Applicant Characteristic Bank in the Alaska State Department of Labor's Employment Security Division at Juneau. The applicant bank may help Ambrose and thousands like him achieve a better way of life.

All of the 8,500 people listed in the bank are Eskimos, Aleuts, and Indians who make their homes in some 175 tiny villages scattered across the Nation's largest State. Many more names will be added as members of an Alaska Employment Security Division mobile survey team extend their efforts to additional villages. The survey has been completed in eight of the 13 areas to be covered. Another 2 years probably will be required to complete it in the remaining five areas.

Personal Interviews Held

Work on the applicant bank began in the summer of 1969. The project is being funded by the Manpower Administration through its Smaller Communities Program, which carries on a variety of activities designed to improve employment opportunities in rural areas and small towns.

Each of the natives already in the bank has been interviewed personally, many by members of the State agency's mobile survey team which is now composed of director Arnold Westgaard, and interviewers Luther Keller, Gordon Burns, and Patricia Breset. The information gathered in the interviews in the remote villages is stored on computerized cards, and the applicant bank represents the hopes and ambitions of the native population.

Ambrose's card, for example, shows that he aspires to be a government construction worker but has had little experience or training in the occupation. It also shows that he has only a sixth grade education, but possesses considerable potential in the type of work he seeks. It indicates his willingness to move elsewhere for either training or employment. The economic data on the card reflect the Ambrose family's dependence on hunting and fishing and his cash income of about $2,000 a year derived mainly from summer jobs.

Most of the other cards in the bank reflect characteristics and an existence much like Ambrose's. Alaska's native population constitutes a potential work force of considerable size and diversity. The natives can be trained individually for jobs developed through the State employment service with various private employers or in big classes for mass placement in major industrial endeavors or in large public projects like the proposed Alaska oil pipeline.

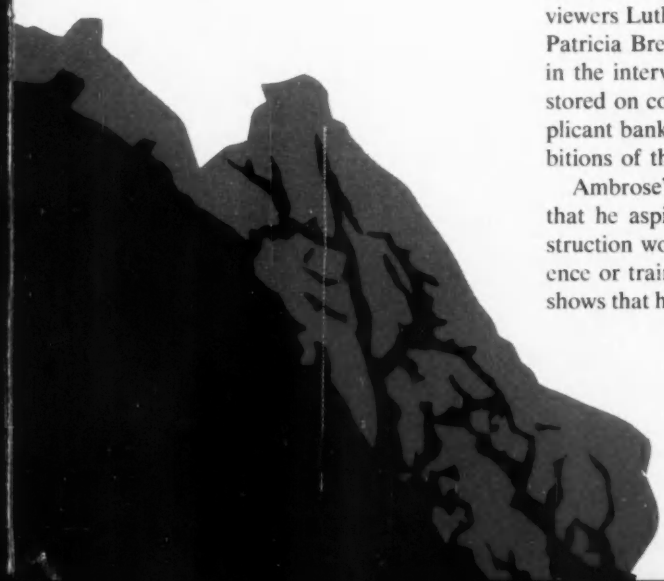
Work force estimates for the pipeline range from 7,000 to 8,000 with room for a great number of natives. Alaskans already get preferential consideration for jobs created in the State by the expenditure of public funds, and the fact that the natives are acclimated for outdoor work in severe weather makes them a natural for pipeline construction jobs.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the need for job opportunities and manpower services among Alaska's natives. The dimensions of native poverty are as great as the geography in a State as big as Texas, California, and Montana combined.

Members of the mobile survey team have seen the problems firsthand. They've already covered a large part of the sprawling network of settlements known as "Bush Alaska"—stretching from Metlakatla and Hydaburg in the rain forests of the southeastern panhandle, northwest 1,300 miles to Barrow and Wainright on the tundra along the Arctic Ocean, southwest nearly 1,600 miles to Nikolski and Atka on the foggy, low-bushed Aleutian Islands.

Not only are the natives under-educated for competition in the modern world, they often live in isolated, inaccessible areas where training is at best limited, health services woefully inadequate, and economic growth nonexistent. Their villages differ in many ways—size, climate, land-

Mr. Hood is the U.S. Department of Labor regional information director in Seattle.



Alaska *continued*

'Alaska's native population constitutes a potential work force of considerable size and diversity.'

scape, and cultural heritages and patterns of life. But most of them are alike in that the inhabitants must rely upon nature and not upon income from jobs as a basis for their existence.

No longer content with their subsistence existence, native families like the Ambroses find life becoming increasingly complex and frustrating. Torn between old and new in a time of tremendous cultural and social change, they want the basic amenities that most Americans take for granted, but at the same time would like to retain what they regard as the best of their own past—the village council method of government, their language, religious and social customs, historic celebrations, and the like.

In the Ambrose household, for example, Linda is dissatisfied with their one-room house. She would like a kitchen, a bathroom, and two or three bedrooms "so we wouldn't have to double up in one room when friends and relatives come to visit us."

Communications Limited

Tom says all the talk about oil in Alaska has even got Linda thinking about such things as hot water and an oil heater. The Ambrose home is heated by a wood stove, and water for cooking and bathing is melted from ice and brought to a boil in pans and kettles. Tom, who doesn't even have a dog team, would like a snowmobile, and his wife talks longingly of a washing machine like those she has heard people have in Nome.

The Ambroses are tired of a continual diet of fish, moose, and caribou but Tom says his family is lucky in that they have syrup for their sourdough pancakes while others must still be content with seal oil.

So it is with most of the others now listed in the Applicant Characteristic Bank, as well as with the estimated 54,000 Alaska natives still to be reached by interviewers. Communication with most villages is limited to letter or radio; only 23 native settlements have telephone service linking them to other places. Not all of the villages have radio receivers or transmitters, and communication is difficult even with some that do when temperatures get down to 60 and 70 degrees below zero, and the mysterious northern lights appear. Television is virtually nonexistent in bush villages.

Fewer than a dozen of the villages are on Alaska's limited road network. Access to others is only by air or, depending on the season, by boat, snowmobile, or dog team. At 45 villages without airstrips (outside of southeastern Alaska), several weeks of fall freezeup prevent float planes from landing on the rivers, and several weeks of spring breakup prevent ski-equipped planes from landing on the ice. At least two of the villages—Atka on the Aleutian Chain and St. George in the Pribilof Islands—can be reached only by boat.

Native housing in the villages is considered to be among the most primitive in the United States. Of some 7,500 dwellings in the village network, 7,100 need replacement, according to 1969 estimates by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Moreover, an additional 350 or more new dwellings should be provided annually to keep pace with population increases.

Ironically in such a vast domain, medical personnel blame cramped living quarters for many of the natives' health problems. They point to the small, dark, overcrowded, poorly ventilated dwellings as the basis for a conclusion that "it is conditions of life in Alaska and not physical inheritance that account for the poor health status of the natives."

The average life expectancy of Alaska natives is only 43. The three principal causes of death are accidents, influenza, and pneumonia. The native death rate from pneumonia is about 10 times that for white Alaskans; from accidents, three times; and from suicides, double. The infant mortality rate, a significant factor in the overall death rate, is more than twice that for white Alaskans.

In addition to the overcrowded living conditions, disease control is complicated by inadequate waste disposal systems, malnutrition, lack of understanding of hygienic practices, and inadequate health services. There is one doctor for about 1,350 people in Alaska.

Disease prevention and treatment have improved, but a significant reduction in remaining health problems depends in large measure on improvement of the socioeconomic conditions under which the natives live. Such improvements, in turn, are closely linked to better education and job training and, of course, to increased job opportunities. Few adult natives have gone beyond the eighth grade. School enrollments have been increasing to some extent, but principally in the larger settlements rather than in the smaller villages.

This relatively low level of formal education does not indicate a lack of learning capacity on the part of Alaska natives. Standard metropolitan tests administered in 1965 to students in Bureau of Indian Affairs primary schools showed levels of performance in the upper grades encouragingly close to national medians.

Indicative of native interest in education was the response to a recent opportunity for natives to be trained as teachers of adult basic education. Fourteen village council presidents were advised that if they wanted the program for their village they were to nominate two candidates. All 14 responded and 12 candidates were selected for the 3-week training course at Alaska Methodist University in Anchorage.

Many Modes of Travel

The capacity and desire for self-improvement on the part of the natives is essential to the success of coordinated efforts of Federal and State agencies to improve their lives through employment and training opportunities, health care, and education. Another essential element is more information about the native population than has ever been available before, and that is what the mobile survey team and the Applicant Characteristic Bank is making possible.

An estimated 27,000 natives reside in the villages of the eight areas already contacted in the survey. Interviewers have traveled by plane, boat, dog team, snowmobile, and even on foot to accomplish their wilderness mission in all kinds of weather.

Their specific objectives are to:

- Determine the manpower resources of the areas by inventorying the existing and potential skills of the population.
- Assist the communities to evaluate their overall manpower resources and provide clues for economic development.
- Provide individualized manpower services—employment information, counseling, job referral, and referral to manpower training opportunities.

Their first assignment—June 23 to July 18, 1969—was in the Barrow-Wainwright area, where the average winter temperature is 30 degrees below zero, summers

Academic instruction leading to a General Educational Development (GED) certificate and job training, including heavy equipment operation and maintenance, engine repair, clerical skills, and machine skills, are offered at the Alaska Skill Center at Seward.

last for about 90 days, for 13 weeks there are 24 hours of sunlight each day, and from mid-November to February the sun never gets above the horizon. It was in this area that Will Rogers and Wiley Post were killed in a plane crash in 1935.

The Barrow-Wainwright survey covered an area of 58,518 square miles, but only three villages with a total population of less than 2,700—87 percent native.

The survey planners took note, in selection of Barrow-Wainwright, that the area economy is supported by defense installations and their contractors, the Navy's Arctic Research Laboratory, and petroleum and natural gas exploration. For hundreds of years the natives of the great North Slope survived by hunting and fishing (whale, walrus, seal, whitefish, caribou, fox, and wolf), but in more recent years concentration of population at Wainwright and Barrow has made it physically impossible for the people there to live off the land. And, survey team members point out, "the people now want conveniences and material goods which must be bought with money."

The survey team's next trip was to the east central area, including the community of Valdez, situated on Prince William Sound amid spruce and hemlock forests backed by sharply rising mountains. The work was timed for September-November 1969, because high winds and heavy snowfall are common in the region during the winter.

The survey area covers 25,000 square miles, including 13 villages with a combined population of 3,065—22 percent natives. It was chosen for study because of the economic implications of the plan to construct a pipeline to transport oil from the North Slope to the port of Valdez. The proposed pipeline would run near many of the villages surveyed by the mobile team, and it is hoped construction work will bring a period of heightened economic activity to a region which typically experiences unemployment rates ranging from 15 to 25 percent. The survey documents the potential manpower resources, the available local skills, and the interest in training.

The other surveys that have been completed covered areas ranging in size from 18,000 to almost 90,000 square miles. Their work already has taken the interviewers from salmon-rich Bristol Bay in southwest Alaska to the treeless tundra and permafrost of the Upper Yukon, where the chill factor (wind plus temperature) sinks to 100 degrees below zero and darkness decends in November and lasts until February.

In addition to a manpower profile, their reports on each survey area included a description of topography, climatic conditions, and natural resources, and information on current and potential employment opportunities. In some areas, many of the natives expressed a willingness to relocate for training and work; in others, most of them said they want training and jobs but desire to stay where they are.

Of the 27,453 population count represented in the survey in all eight areas, 67 percent were natives. The potential native work force is estimated at about 8,500, ranging in age from 16 to 66 and older, with the majority in the 22-25 bracket.

Like the Ambroses, many of the natives have annual incomes of less than $2,000, a figure that understates their poverty because basic commodities in Alaska cost about 25 percent more than in the "lower 48." In many areas more people are unemployed or have seasonal jobs than have permanent employment, and more than half of the potential work force is jobless most of the year.

The surveys show that while some of the natives find seasonal employment away from their villages as firefighters, cannery workers, and construction laborers, the bulk rely upon fishing, hunting, trapping, and other food gathering activities; and upon a combination of means to obtain cash for fuel, food staples, and tools and supplies necessary for the harvest of fish and wildlife.

They also note that the few year-round jobs available in most of the villages are limited to such employment as school maintenance worker, school cook, teacher aide, airline station agent, and village store clerk.

The natives' lack of education and marketable skills is further complicated by their apprehension at dealing with outsiders. As one interviewer explained: "They're meek when they come out of the villages, and if somebody tells them 'No' when they ask for a job, they're not likely to come back."

Since there admittedly is little opportunity for job development in the villages themselves, at least at present, efforts are being concentrated on helping natives find work in other areas or on placing them in manpower training programs. The Applicant Characteristic Bank will provide the means of rapid, computerized selection.

Project spokesmen emphasize that the training interests of the natives reflect their deep-rooted, long-range hopes for a better way of life. The interview cards reveal a wide spectrum of interests, including architecture and engineering; physical and social sciences; law; religion and theology; writing; stenography; merchandising; food and beverage preparation and service; cosmetology; farming; forestry; metal, petroleum, and chemical processing; and machine trades.

Though still incomplete, the surveys and the development of the Applicant Characteristic Bank already have produced limited results. Some natives have been referred to job training, some have been placed in employment, and many have received counseling from representatives of various agencies.

Alaska Employment Security Division staff members have been thoroughly briefed on training programs and are able to provide the natives with additional information and followup services.

Employers have been made aware of ways the Federal-State employment service can be helpful in providing natives for employment and training.

As for the future, if and when the pipeline is started or other big industrial expansion takes place in Alaska, there should be no delay in the matter of job training referral.

But right now, "sitting on top of the world" isn't all it's cracked up to be. □

News & Notes

The Department of Labor's Manpower Administration is funding a Veterans Construction Job Clearinghouse to match ex-servicemen having construction skills with labor-short builders in all parts of the country. About 19,000 job-ready men are expected to be leaving the military service during 1972 already skilled in carpentry, bricklaying, heavy equipment operation, and similar trades. These men will be matched with jobs that are being listed with the Clearinghouse in Washington, operated jointly by the National Association of Home Builders and the Associated General Contractors of America. The Defense Department is cooperating by registering with the Clearinghouse qualified servicemen who will be discharged in 1972. When the serviceman is discharged, he receives from the Clearinghouse the name of a specific construction firm that needs his skill in his hometown or preferred work area.

* * *

The U.S. Department of Labor has appointed its first woman as a Regional Administrator for its Employment Standards Administration. Virginia Allee, former chief of the California Division of Industrial Welfare, has been named to head the San Francisco region embracing Arizona, California, Hawaii, Nevada, Guam, and American Samoa.

* * *

Union labels are familiar sights on printing, clothes, and dozens of other items of everyday use. But teeth? It's happening. Jewelry Workers Union locals in California have negotiated contracts calling for union labels to be laminated into dental plates made by union technicians. The public won't see the labels, of course, but people buying the plates will be able to identify dentists who use union-made products.

* * *

Starting in September, Dartmouth College will shift to a system of year-round operation. Under the Dartmouth plan, the year will be divided into four 3-month terms. After a traditional freshman year of fall, winter, and spring classes, a student can choose to complete college through any combination of eight quarters (including summer quarters) over the next 3 years. What this means is that most students will have an extra vacation during their college years and that those vacations often will be in seasons other than summer. This system gives the student a great deal of flexibility so that he can arrange to have vacations of 6 or even 9 months if he wishes and can be available for employment at times other than just in the summer.

* * *

What happens to men who lose their jobs when a plant closes? They get sick, says a University of Michigan research study. More than half of the men laid off in a Detroit plant suffered psychological or physiological changes. Many developed ulcers, arthritis, and high blood pressure. One man lost his hair twice. And the effects extended to their wives, several of whom were stricken with peptic ulcers. One suggested solution: Reduce the time between announcement of the shutdown and the actual closing to 90 days or less. Longer periods place too much stress on the workers, the researchers said. The study also suggested including health insurance benefits in unemployment insurance.

* * *

The unemployment rate in the poverty neighborhoods of the Nation's 100 largest metropolitan areas edged down in 1971 from 10.4 percent in the third quarter to 9.8 percent in the fourth quarter, seasonally adjusted. The jobless rate in the other urban neighborhoods, at 6 percent, was essentially unchanged, as was the rate for the Nation as a whole, according to the Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics.

* * *

Women's libbers have been complaining that the U.S. Department of Labor's "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" discriminates against women by giving traditional women's jobs lower skill ratings. So the University of Wisconsin will study how ratings are assigned in the "Dictionary."

* * *

The Atterbury Job Corps Center near Edinburg, Ind., has been funded for $11.9 million through Feburary 1973. The Breckinridge Center near Morganfield, Ky., has been funded for $19.2 million through December of next year. Both opened in 1965 and each can accommodate 1,800 Corpsmen.

* * *

The White House Conference on the Industrial World Ahead predicts that the U.S. work force, now close to 85 million, will rise to about 100 million in 1980 and to 107 million in 1985.

Words & Figures

Summer Jobs for Youth

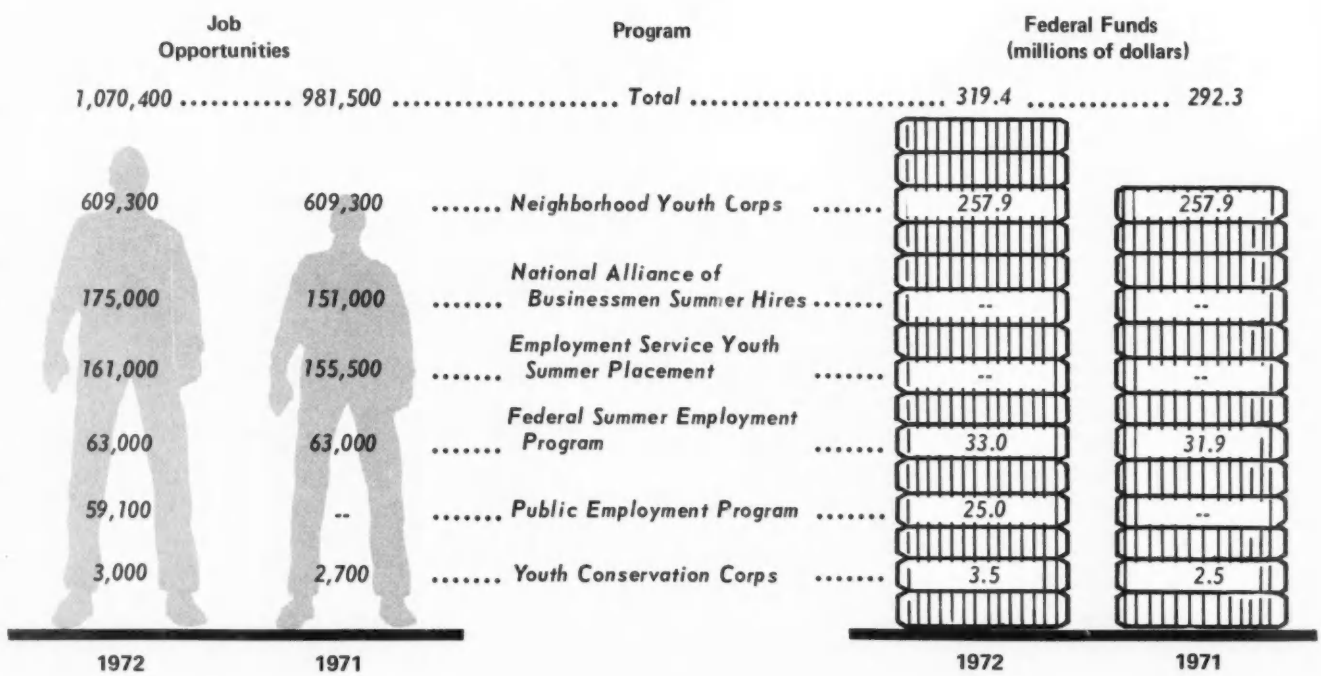
Six major programs have been organized to provide a record 1.07 million job opportunities this summer for disadvantaged youth at a cost of $319.4 million in Federal funds. Almost 89,000 more job opportunities are being made available this summer than last year. The largest number of opportunities this year, 609,300, will be in the Neighborhood Youth Corps. The National Alliance of Businessmen has pledged 175,000 jobs. The employment will enable needy youth to earn an income which will make it possible for them to return to school in the fall.

Most of the increased opportunities are being funded by the Public Employment Program authorized by the Emergency Employment Act (EEA). State and local governments are being notified to use Section 6 EEA funds not spent as originally programed to hire youth for summer jobs. The Federal Government also is participating and will hire one disadvantaged youth under the Federal Summer Employment Program for every 40 employees.

The ranks of unemployed youth are swollen each year as young people leave school. In July 1971 there were 1.7 million unemployed teenagers. There would have been many more had it not been for federally supported summer job programs for disadvantaged youth.

Five million students between 16-19 years of age either held or looked for vacation jobs at some time during the summer of 1969, according to a Bureau of Labor Statistics survey. Of that number, 4.2 million found jobs. Among the more than 800,000 who did not, many were in need of jobs as illustrated by their continued search for work. One of every three who did not get a job looked for 5 or more weeks, and 1 out of 5 looked for 9 or more weeks.

Youth Job Opportunities, Summer 1972

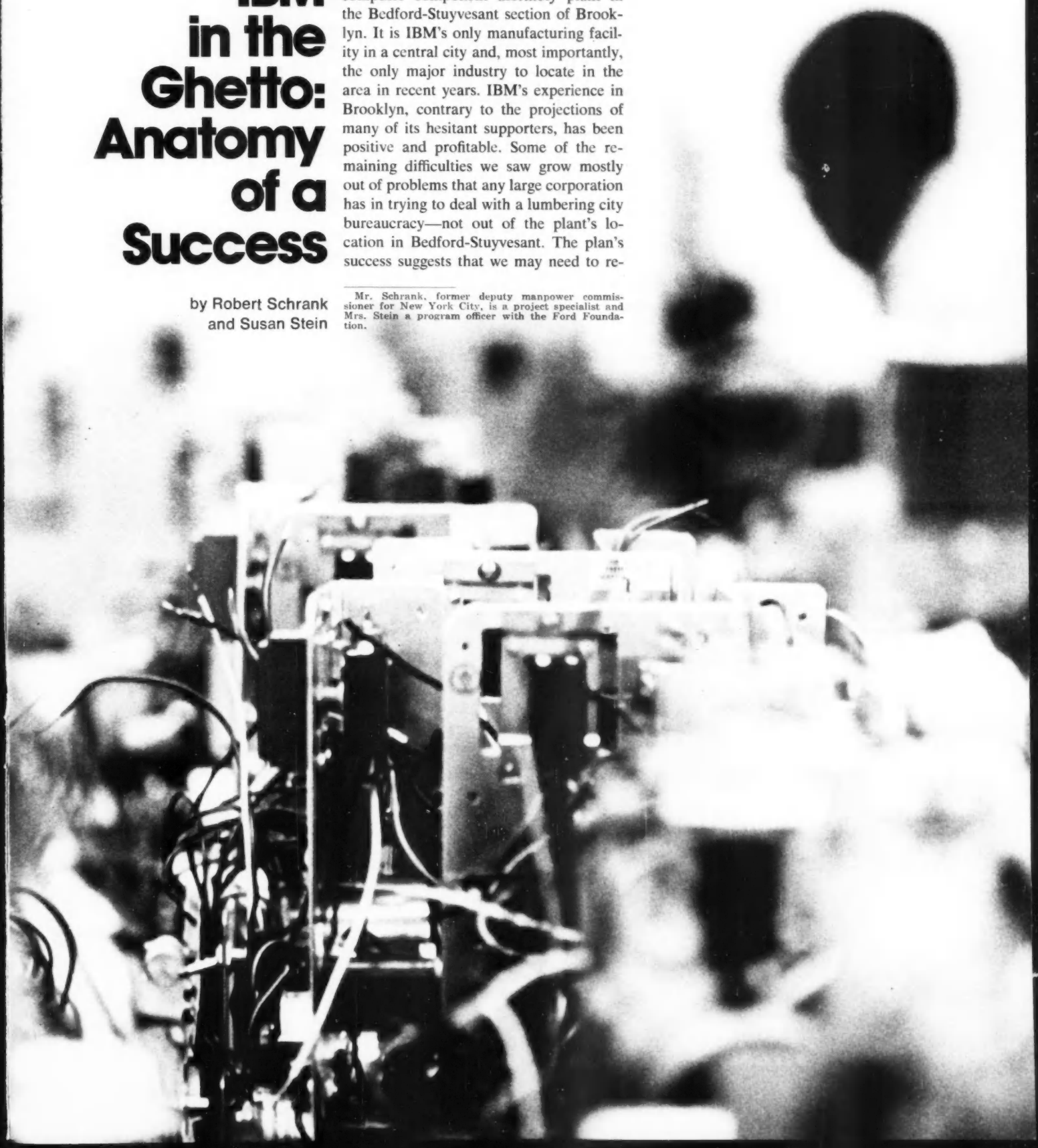

Job Opportunities
Program
Federal Funds (millions of dollars)
1,070,400 ..... 981,500 ..... Total ..... 319.4 ..... 292.3
609,300 609,300 ..... Neighborhood Youth Corps 257.9 257.9
175,000 151,000 ..... National Alliance of Businessmen Summer Hires ..... -- --
161,000 155,500 ..... Employment Service Youth Summer Placement ..... -- --
63,000 63,000 ..... Federal Summer Employment Program 33.0 31.9
59,100 -- ..... Public Employment Program ..... 25.0 --
3,000 2,700 ..... Youth Conservation Corps 3.5 2.5
1972
1971
1972
1971

IBM in the Ghetto: Anatomy of a Success

by Robert Schrank
and Susan Stein

Since July 1968 IBM has operated a computer component assembly plant in the Bedford-Stuyvesant section of Brooklyn. It is IBM's only manufacturing facility in a central city and, most importantly, the only major industry to locate in the area in recent years. IBM's experience in Brooklyn, contrary to the projections of many of its hesitant supporters, has been positive and profitable. Some of the remaining difficulties we saw grow mostly out of problems that any large corporation has in trying to deal with a lumbering city bureaucracy—not out of the plant's location in Bedford-Stuyvesant. The plan's success suggests that we may need to re-

Mr. Schrank, former deputy manpower commissioner for New York City, is a project specialist and Mrs. Stein a program officer with the Ford Foundation.



consider some of the issues around black capitalism, central city development, and the minority community labor pool.

The plant opened its doors with 200 workers and now employs approximately 400 people, evenly divided between production and nonproduction workers. About 75 percent of the work force is male and almost all the employees were recruited from the area and have remained there.

From the outset the plant has produced external computer cables and two power packs—one for keypunch machines and one for verifiers. It formerly took 2½ and 3 hours, respectively, to produce the power packs. An engineering change recently combined the two power packs into one unit requiring only 1 hour to produce. For this work employees originally were paid a minimum of $85 per week. Average starting salary now is $100 per week, with opportunities for advancement.

After more than 3 years 75 percent of the original year's production staff still is working for IBM, as are 95 percent of the nonproduction staff. Turnover, a key problem in the early months, has been reduced by two-thirds. Absence runs approximately 5 percent, which relates favorably to other IBM facilities. Sixty production workers are enrolled in IBM-sponsored in-plant training after hours and a considerable number of production and administrative staff take outside education programs, with the costs being paid by IBM's tuition refund plan.

Contrary to what many expect, the atmosphere in the plant is like that in most other manufacturing plants. It is not being run as a social experiment; it is required to deliver quality products according to a schedule. As a supplier of essential computer components to eight other plants, the Brooklyn facility's ability to meet production schedules is critical to its survival.

Because of the plant's central city location, in the early months of operations visitors might have sensed management concern over absenteeism, turnover, vandalism, pilferage, drugs, drinking, crime, and similar problems often associated with the ghetto. Undoubtedly, this was a reflection of both the observer's and management's preconceptions of the problems a central city plant would encounter. Today the visitor senses less management concern and frustration with minority group or central city problems and more concern with the city's bureaucracy and the failure of other companies to follow IBM's suit.

What have been the key elements in IBM's Bedford-Stuyvesant success and are they unique? In spite of much publicity to the contrary, the company found a reliable work force in the community. At the outset management selected 155 persons after personal interviews and testing. Forty percent of the first recruits had no high school diploma, 16 percent had been in prison, 22 percent had been unemployed for 6 weeks or longer in the previous year. Other employers in the area decried these characteristics, citing their experiences with high turnover, absenteeism, and the like. The word got around that the available work force just wasn't reliable.

Work Force Proves Capable

IBM found differently. The workers stayed and worked well—so well that the hiring policy was loosened. Hiring and replacement in the last year, raising the work force to 400, has been based primarily on evidence of some past work experience. Prospective employees are not automatically disqualified because of felony convictions, nor does IBM use tests, except to assess secretarial skills. The constant stream of applicants at IBM's doors springs mostly from contacts made by persons working in the plant (an employee tells a friend, etc.).

IBM's experience supports what many Bedford-Stuyvesant residents have been saying for some time. There is a stable work force in the area and it responds to decent jobs at decent pay. The IBM employees are neither the cream nor the hard core of what is available. They simply are a fair sampling of the diversity of skills available in any community.

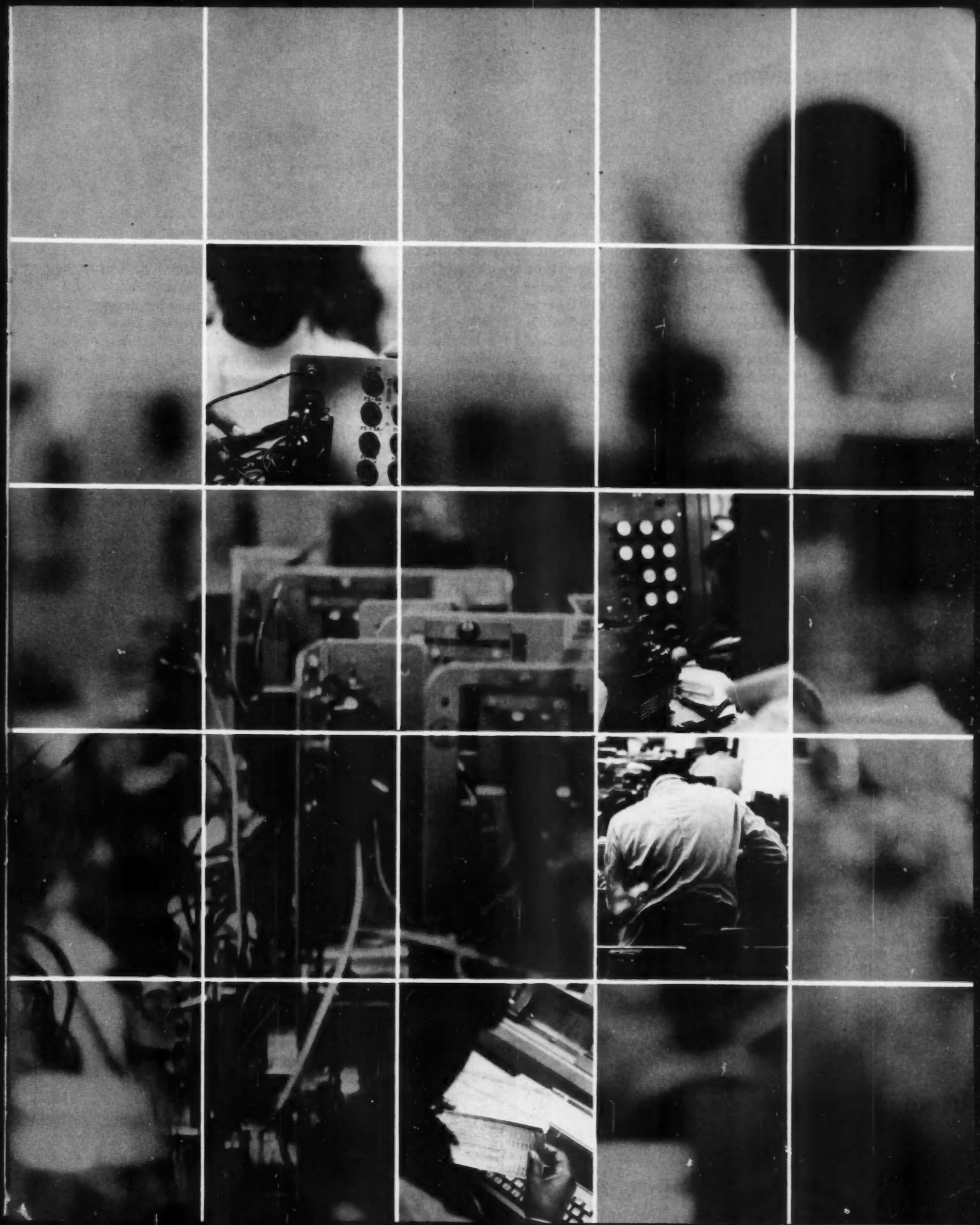
In this respect, IBM Bedford-Stuyvesant plant manager Halvan I. Lieteau stresses the importance of not generalizing about the available labor pool from the experience of marginal companies paying minimum wages. He does not categorize local residents as people who are ignorant of how to get and hold a job. Instead, he stresses their capabilities. Lieteau's experience suggests that many Bedford-Stuyvesant residents know all too well the deficiencies of many of the jobs available to them and for those reasons do not pursue substandard jobs or leave them as soon as they can meet immediate financial needs.

Businessmen and industrial managers often complain about being unable to find reliable workers in the ghetto. They point to the large number of entry-level job openings and the equally large number of unemployed poor. In one recent article a company director was interviewed because of his vociferous complaints about the lack of applicants for jobs at his plant. It turned out that the company had a chicken feather cleaning factory which needed a man for its midnight to 8 a.m. shift. The job paid $1.60 per hour and involved working in a cloud of dust and feathers. It was not the kind of job that attracts many applicants.

Lieteau attributes his positive experience to the fact that IBM offers respectable work, in a decent setting, for good pay. He feels certain that others with similar offerings will find similar response.

A second key element has been the extensive support IBM gave the plant in its early stages. This support, while hard to document, probably included the consulting time of high-priced management and production experts, operational assistance, supervision by experienced and proven workers, and a personnel philosophy carefully articulated and tested elsewhere. In fact, almost any kind of help on any matter was only as far away as the nearest phone. And, of course, the status of the IBM name must not be overlooked.

It is important to realize, however, that most large companies—probably all of



Fortune's 500—routinely offer this type of assistance to new branch operations. An infant operation never is expected to spring to full life armor like Athena. A period of testing, adjustment, and subsidy is anticipated. But this normal nurturing process often is forgotten in dealing with many central city problems. Instant solutions are demanded in central city manufacturing plants while long-term development is tolerated in middle class suburban areas.

This impatience may have more to do with our prejudices and biases than with reality. It must be realized that ghetto enterprises often require 2 to 3 years to mature, which means that large profitable companies have an edge over the private individual entrepreneur. The lone businessman usually cannot wait 3 years to make a profit. This ability to wait can be a critical factor lacking in many black capitalism type projects. In our haste to see more minority owned or operated businesses, we too often ignore the realities of small business history and place too great expectation on the small entrepreneur.

A third factor in IBM's Bedford-Stuyvesant success is the type of work done in the Brooklyn plant. It is clean, highly labor-intensive work involving small physical units that require minimum trucking and storage space. Storage space may be a critical factor in plant costs in a central city location. Other important factors in the type of work are that IBM is in a growth industry—electronics—and the materials and processes used in the Brooklyn plant do not bring the odor and aura of a glue factory or a rubber plant into a residential area.

None of these three elements—a reliable work force, adequate support, and a suitable type of work—is remarkable or unique to IBM's Brooklyn plant. Certainly other companies might successfully undertake similar efforts. What prevents them from doing so—apart from the stereotypes of inner-city problems? The answer, in many cases, is reluctance to begin a frustrating engagement with city bureaucracies over building codes, licensing, equipment purchase, plant construction, land acquisition, and similar matters.

Land often is available in central cities for industrial use, but adequate parcels of it cannot be assembled in any reasonable time. Zoning, ownership, purchase, and title laws can draw out land acquisitions to 4 to 5 years. If a company is lucky enough to find land or even a usable building, getting it through the myriad of applicable codes can be a frustrating and costly process.

One experience IBM had with its Brooklyn plant—although involving a relatively minor matter—illustrates the kind of frustration that can result from having to deal with antiquated city governments. In purchasing fire hoses for the Brooklyn plant, IBM officials consulted with the local fire department authority. This resulted in purchase of what the local department inspector and the manufacturer claimed to be "the latest thing in fire hoses—(used) in all the top downtown buildings." Soon after the hoses were purchased a higher level in the fire department authority said they were unsuitable and produced a different set of instructions. Such lack of clarity about regulations, often typical of big city bureaucracies, creates the "who wants to get involved in that lunacy" syndrome and helps explain why major corporations avoid central city locations.

Strong Support Required

Another issue raised by IBM's experience is the need for extensive financial and management support to new ghetto enterprises. Much of the effort to create minority entrepreneurs may be weakened because of limited capacity to underwrite the heavy financial burdens of early development. In the case of the individual entrepreneur, he can borrow only so much money himself. He has to make it quickly or die.

The community economic development corporation has a different problem—one of divided loyalities. Many minority leaders who emerged in the sixties built their community base through social programs for youth, the elderly, the unemployed, the untrained, and similar groups. They are now moving into large-scale economic development.

These entrepreneurs clearly have an edge over the individual small businessman, in both the technical assistance at their command and backup financing. But they have a problem in their dual role as businessmen and social program operators or community leaders. When faced with heavy losses and continual difficulties, only so much money and effort can be expended on righting entrepreneurial ventures before social programs suffer. In some cases, entrepreneurial success may even depend on some anti-social efforts, such as reducing the work force or raising prices in businesses backed by the community development organization.

In these respects, a company like IBM has many advantages in developing viable central city enterprises. This is not an argument against black capitalism. What IBM's experience does suggest, however, is that major industrial corporations may have the greatest potential for employment and in turn for real impact on central city minority unemployment. Black capitalism should be stimulated and supported for its own sake, not for its role in alleviating the problems of the central city or the poor.

Finding other IBM's will not be easy. Cities will need to offer distinct advantages over suburban plant locations. This means creating financial incentives, assembling and holding land in industrial parks, improving public transportation, and consolidating and rationalizing building codes. Admittedly, eliminating the tangle of municipal red tape will require hand-to-hand combat with some entrenched interests and bureaucracies.

The point is that these are not impossible tasks and the unemployment level in central cities is not resistant to change. The problems are neither too complex nor too extensive to be approached. Working with the IBM model, it may be possible to interest other corporations in central city locations—not just as a social responsibility but as an efficient corporate operation. □

Young Man in a Hurry

A street corner is no place for a young man to be. Right?

Wrong. At least in one instance it was not a wrong place for Victor Silva. A school dropout, jobless, and unskilled, Silva was lounging around on a street corner when he heard about the Job Corps from a friend. And that changed Silva's world.

A year earlier, Silva had left Mexico, where he was in high school, to settle in California with his family. When his attempt to cope with the language and customs of a U.S. high school failed, he worked for a time harvesting lettuce until the work ran out.

Silva took his friend's advice and joined the Job Corps in July 1970. At the time, he could not understand, speak, or read English. One year later he passed a general educational development (GED) test in both English and Spanish to get his high school equivalency diploma. Recently he also passed a test—in English—to become a certified welder.

Two things account for Silva's speedy progress in learning English. One is Silva. The other is the Job Corps, a Manpower Administration program that offers remedial education, job training, and counseling in a residential environment to out-of-school, jobless youth 16 to 21 years old who come from disadvantaged backgrounds.

Silva's former Job Corps instructors at the Angell Civilian Conservation Center near Yachats, Oreg., say he was "a good student who kept his nose in a book and a Spanish-American dictionary in his pocket." During his stay, Silva not only readied himself to pass the GED but also studied welding and became one of the top welders at the Center. He was determined to move ahead as quickly as possible, Angell instructors say, and he made the most of what they had to offer.

But the Job Corps rates some credit, too, for Silva's success. Christopher Pearce, Silva's reading teacher at Angell, says that Corps teaching methods and materials are tailormade for youth who have encountered great difficulties in regular school environments. For example, reading is taught in a highly individualized manner which permits each student to start at his level of competence, progress at his own pace, and study subjects that particularly interest him.

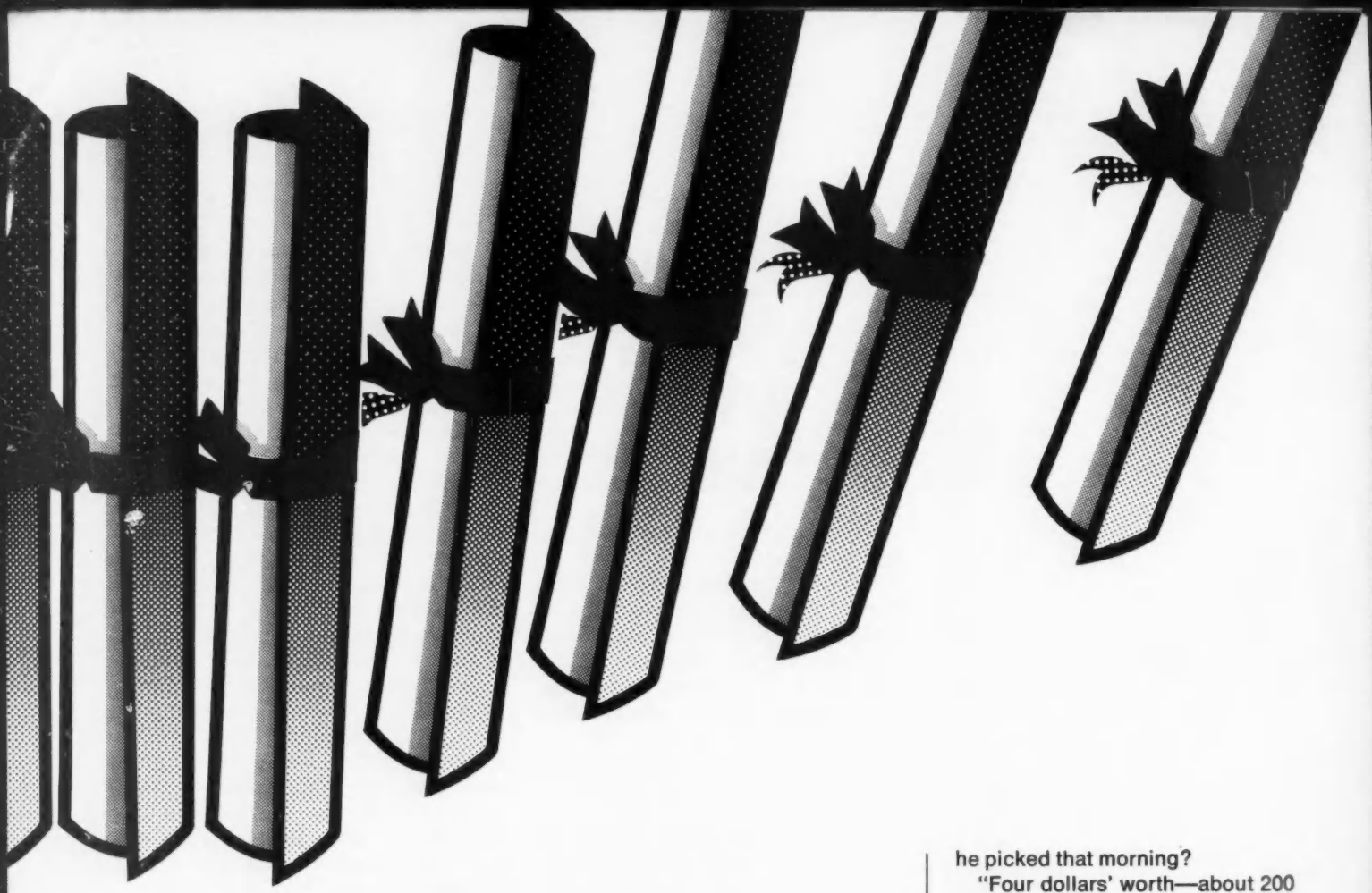
Silva began his forays into the thickets of English with a few simple words and phonetic sounds. Step by step, his lessons led him deeper into the language until he could read simple books. In short order he moved on to books with more complex ideas and more difficult vocabulary.

Silva says he was given the Spanish GED to determine his subject matter knowledge when tested in his native language. The English GED tests enabled him to establish his competence in his new tongue and to meet any requirements his future employers may have for a high school diploma. Acquiring a GED in a year after beginning to learn English is an uncommon feat and a remarkable accomplishment, Job Corps education specialists say.

As for his welding ability, Silva gives much of the credit to Sid Bowen, his vocational instructor at Angell. Bowen remembers well how important the Civilian Conservation Camp program in the thirties was in his own development.

Last fall Silva transferred to the Anaconda, Mont., Job Corps Center with the idea of taking heavy equipment training in a program run by the International Union of Operating Engineers. But after working with heavy equipment for a time, he decided he preferred welding and early this year he passed the American Welding Society's certification test.

Rather than wait for job placement, however, Silva decided to sign up for a 2-year Army hitch. In the Army he hopes to see some of the country, continue his studies, and get advanced training. □



Young Migrants Harvest Diplomas

by William Cole

Classes on College Campuses Help Dropouts Complete High School

Henry turned up at the rural schoolhouse at noon one day, a thin, bent, black boy in his early teens, and asked if he could attend the afternoon classes. He wouldn't be able to get there any earlier, he explained. He had to work with his parents in the fields—6, 7 hours, starting at dawn, picking beans. Then he had to walk the 4 miles to the school.

"Can't make it before noon," he said. "Sorry."

They looked at him, caked with dust from the flaking topsoil, stooped from crouching over row after endless row of beans and onions and tomatoes and the other crops that he and his family followed. How many beans had he picked that morning?

"Four dollars' worth—about 200 pounds."

"Then you must be hungry. Would you like some lunch?"

"Yes'm. Thanks. Ain't had no breakfast yet."

For 3 weeks, after work, Henry attended classes. He couldn't read or write and he had trouble keeping his fatigue-swollen eyes open, but his attention never for an instant wavered. Occasionally, his head would start nodding and drooping toward the desk, but he would snap it back and shake it angrily, as though reminding himself that if he was going to escape poverty, learning would provide the key.

Then, on the day after he triumphantly, if haltingly, read aloud a few simple sentences, to the acclamation of the teacher, he failed to show up. The beans had run out. Henry and his family were moving on to pick the strawberries that would brighten America's markets.

"When the strawberries run out in a few weeks, Henry will be

Mr. Cole is a freelance writer.

dragged out of the next school," his former teacher said. "There may not even be a school in the vicinity for him to go to, or that will take him. What a waste! He's such an intelligent, eager boy."

Henry, who disappeared into the migrant stream, is one of an estimated 1.3 million children of migratory agricultural workers who travel and work with their families—children who have been called America's "most forgotten," "most disinherited," "most educationally deprived" youngsters.

The public and the Government have long been aware of the plight of these children and their parents. Yet, despite much publicity, numerous hearings, and some legislative effort and accomplishment in recent years, migrants and their families remain at the bottom of the socioeconomic ladder. They are set apart from the rest of society. Their nomadic existence disrupts everything from family relationships to community participation and the education of their children.

"Migrants continue to be excluded from the social protection afforded other workers," says agricultural economist Robert C. McElroy, U.S. Department of Agriculture's Economic Research Service. "Although a few migrants are now technically covered by the Federal minimum wage laws, their average annual earnings in 1970 were $1,930—and that's including an average of $727 they made from nonfarm work, little jobs they picked up on the side.

"A major hope of breaking the poverty cycle is through education of the children, but deprivation and the transitory nature of migratory work causes children to have fewer educational opportunities and lower educational attainment than any other group."

Mexican American and Puerto Rican children, who speak little or no English, are especially handicapped. Without the special instructional techniques they require, school soon becomes a source of embarrassment and constant failure, and they withdraw.

Long before they finish high school, the large majority of migrant children—an estimated 80 percent—drop out.

In an effort to improve this situation, both the U.S. Office of Education and the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) have attempted to meet the special needs of migrant children. Children of migratory workers have been included in programs for educationally deprived youngsters —programs which provide clothing, hot meals, and medical care, as well as education. The Office of Education has funded projects to develop information centers, record transfer systems, and methods for identifying the needs and behavioral patterns of migrant children. OEO is authorized to provide funds for programs that will "assist migrant and seasonal farmworkers and their families to improve their living conditions and develop skills necessary for a productive and self-sufficient life."

One of these efforts that has

Informality and individualized attention are keystones of the HEP approach. Horacio Flores (left) discusses a science problem with instructor Richard Diaz in the dormitory at California State Polytechnic College.

Young migrants find a new educational atmosphere in HEP classes like these at the University of South Florida (below), the University of Miami (right), and the State University of New York at Stony Brook.

proved most effective is the High School Equivalency Program—HEP. Administered by OEO's Migrant Division, HEP is designed especially for migrant youth who have dropped out of school. Currently in operation on 16 college and university campuses located in the travel areas of migratory farmworkers, HEP prepares its students to obtain high school equivalency diplomas by passing the General Educational Development (GED) examination.

During the year ended August 1971, Federal funding for the 16 HEP projects was $4 million. Statistics from 12 of these are complete and show that of 1,418 students, 934 were placed in jobs, job training, college, or entered the armed services. Of the remaining 484, 385 dropped out and 99 were separated for disciplinary reasons.

HEP participants live on the campus and attend special preparatory classes for the GED. Recruited by community action and other antipoverty agencies and by the HEP projects themselves, candidates, to be eligible, must be U.S. citizens, between the ages of 17 and 24, single (some programs are beginning to take married students), and high school dropouts. Participants also must be members of families whose earnings are derived mainly from agricultural labor and whose total income falls below the poverty level. About 65 percent of HEP participants are Mexican American and 17 percent are black. Indians, Puerto Ricans, and whites make up the remaining 18 percent.

Started in 1968, HEP's ultimate goal extends beyond getting the student a job, vocational training, or into college. "We try to look at the youngster as a whole and provide him with a total social, cultural, and academic education," says Ron Ludin, chief of national programs for OEO's Migrant Division. "For many young people who find themselves in the field picking crops, HEP represents the only chance to break out of that syndrome and make a new life for themselves."

Books, room, and board at the college dormitories, medical and dental care, and other expenses, including a $10 weekly allowance, are provided all HEP students, who have access to all the facilities, activities, and privileges open to regular students. The size of HEP classes, however, is much smaller than in the regular curriculum, averaging about 10 students. This enables instructors to give individualized attention to each student. Traditional teaching methods, such as lectures, are abandoned. With the use of programed instruction material and other special techniques, each student progresses at his own rate in the learning style best suited for him.

Perhaps the most important element of HEP to the student, according to Ludin, is "the commitment and sincere interest in the students by the teachers, counselors, tutors, and everyone else involved. This interest not only serves as a strong motivating force for the students, but it also represents the first time in their young lives that someone connected with the academic community has really cared about their welfare."

Take Elvia Prado, for example. The daughter of migrants based in southern Florida, she dropped out of school in the sixth grade to help her folks pick tomatoes. Married at 14, she was widowed at 19 with 4 children when her husband was killed in a highway accident. Entering HEP at the University of Miami, Mrs. Prado passed her GED 6 weeks later. This is believed to be a HEP record; the average length of stay in the program is 5 months.

In receiving her diploma, Mrs. Prado was cited for outstanding achievement by Billie Davis, assistant director of the University of Miami HEP, once a migrant child laborer herself who had fought her way through college and earned a master's degree.

"About 85 percent of our students pass the GED and go on to jobs or college," says Mrs. Davis. "Even the few who drop out have new experiences. They see a different world and know they can be anything they want. The important thing is to get them out of the migrant stream before they drown in it."

Similar statistics and views come from HEP administrators at other schools. "These kids are highly motivated," said Charles Andrews of Florida Memorial College in Miami. "We get a lot of Mexican Americans who scarcely know the alphabet when they start in HEP and who pass the GED in a few months. They're used to working very hard and for long hours. These migrant kids have a loyalty to one another, a close relationship that you don't find anywhere else. Each member of the family is important; he has dignity and worth because he is part of the struggle for survival. Many of our Chicano graduates go into social work so they can help other Chicanos."

Florida Memorial has an arrangement with the Lindsey Hopkins Technical School of Miami to train HEP students in trucking, upholstery, automotive mechanics, hotel management, and other skills. At North Carolina A & T State University at Greensboro and at Lamar University in Beaumont, Tex., HEP students attend workshops in photography, electronics, air-conditioning, the construction trades, and graphic communications. Workshop instructors are borrowed from nearby technical schools.

"We also have an arrangement with the School of Nursing for the training of nurses and health aides," says Dr. Sam Parigi, Lamar's HEP director. "These students, in addition to their studies, get 8-hour floor duty assignments in hospitals. This makes it much easier to place

Pedro Arreola was promoted from the supply department to printer at the First National Bank of Denver. He completed HEP at Southern Colorado State College.

Gloria Burrows went from HEP at the State University of New York to a job in Somerville, Tenn., and then on to her present position as a receptionist-secretary for the Housing Assistance Council in Washington, D.C.

Alex Ortega gets some help on the intricacies of the slide rule from tutor Ron Buckner at California Poly.

them after graduation."

HEP counseling programs are as diversified as the schools that conduct them, but all are geared primarily to a learning situation. Operated on a one-to-one relationship, counseling is designed to help the student know more about himself and about the social values, attitudes, and habits that will enable him to develop his full potential.

At the University of Nebraska a university student—usually one who is majoring in sociology or psychology—is assigned as counselor to each HEP participant. "This has been of great benefit to both," says Ted Rethmeier, who heads the counseling division. "The counselor arranges a number of social events, takes the student to his home for dinner and weekends, to sport events, the theater, and parties and other activities. They work together on community projects and become close friends. The experiences, insights, and horizons of both are broadened."

"What a difference you see in these kids, in their outlook on life and self-esteem, in just a few months," says Edward Tofoya, HEP director at Southern Colorado State College. "We had one student, Danny Villez, a champion lettuce cutter who'd dropped out of school in the seventh grade. We got him last year when he was 17, and he's now doing extremely well at the University of Colorado in social sciences."

Dan Louis, a black sophomore football tackle at the University of the Pacific, Stockton, Calif., who graduated from that school's HEP project 2 years ago, also plans to go into sociology so he can help other disadvantaged youth.

Although a substantial number of HEP graduates go on to college, most are placed in jobs or job training. The jobs they get generally are of the entry variety, but with reasonable opportunities for advancement. Eastern New Mexico University placed Charles E. Flowers, now 21, as an executive trainee with the American Oil Company in Levelland, Tex. His starting wage of $1.80 an hour has since been raised to $2.20 and the company is sending him to night school at a nearby college.

"We had good cooperation from the State employment services in Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico and from Operation SER in placing people," said George Hunter, placement coordinator for Eastern New Mexico. SER is funded by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration to promote jobs, training, and education for Mexican Americans in five southwestern States.

Southern Colorado State College placed Pedro Arreola, 23, as a clerk in the supply depot at the First National Bank of Denver at $2 an hour to start. He has since been promoted.

The State University of New York found a job for Gloria Burrows, 19, with the Fayette County Economic Development Commission in Somerville, Tenn., at a starting wage of $64.30 a week. In February of this year she moved to Washington, D.C. as a $6,500-a-year receptionist-secretary for the Housing Assistance Council, a private nonprofit corporation active in the rural housing field, which recruited her through HEP.

For every migrant youngster who is salvaged, however, many more go down the dropout drain. "Few migrants ever hear about HEP," Mrs. Davis says. "And many of the parents, desperately needing every penny the children earn in the fields, oppose the program. We have to educate the parents before they'll let us get to their children."

And, of course, HEP's budget can't meet all the needs of migrants and seasonal farmworkers.

"We're limited to just so many projects," OEO's Ron Ludin points out. "We hope other agencies—Federal, State, local, or even universities or private organizations—will look into the effectiveness of HEP and begin their own similar programs." □

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of Manpower Administration and Bureau of Labor Statistics publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the appropriate organization at the following addresses: Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210; Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212. Please enclose a self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, or the organization specified in the listing, and enclose payment.

Career Thresholds, Volume 3

Manpower Administration 165-page volume summarizes some findings of third round of interviews conducted in fall of 1968 in 5-year longitudinal study of educational and labor market experience of young men 14 to 24 years of age. Describes magnitude and patterns of change that occurred in labor market status of the youth during 2-year period between first and third surveys. Manpower Research Monograph No. 16. $1.50.

Interviewing Guides for Specific Disabilities—Hearing Impairments

Manpower Administration interviewing guide designed to acquaint the counselor with the nature of the disability and to assist him in understanding medical terminology associated with it. Useful in assessing applicant's physical capacities in relation to a suitable field of work or specific job. 15 cents.

A Chance to Improve Your Staff

Manpower Administration flyer for employers explains funds and services which are available from State employment service offices to firms hiring engineers, scientists, and technicians under the new Technology Mobilization and Reemployment Program.

Merchandising Your Job Talents

Manpower Administration pamphlet (revised in 1971) for job hunters telling them where they can learn more about kinds of jobs for which they are qualified; how to prepare a resume; how to write a letter of application; where to get information on job opportunities in specific occupational fields; and how to present their qualifications at job interviews. Also offers tips on planning time, taking tests, and learning to profit from job interviews. 25 cents.

National Apprenticeship and Training Standards for Associated Builders and Contractors, Inc.

Manpower Administration booklet gives apprenticeship standards for nine trades established by the Associated Builders and Contractors, Inc. to be used as a guide by all of its chapters in developing local apprenticeship programs.

National Apprenticeship and Training Policy for Associated Retail Bakers of America—1971 Edition

Manpower Administration booklet gives national apprenticeship and training policy adopted by Associated Retail Bakers of America and suggestions for adaptation to local use. Booklet should be useful to vocational guidance counselors and others who help young people decide about their future.

Important Events in American Labor History 1778-1971

U.S. Department of Labor 35-page chronology of important events in American labor history from 1778 through March 1971. 25 cents.

Federal Contractor Job Listing

Under Executive order, certain employers with Government contracts must list job openings with State employment service agencies. This action is expected to provide more job opportunities for veterans. Manpower Administration leaflet provides answers to 23 questions covering major provisions of this Executive order.

Current Wage Developments

Monthly Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin (mostly statistical) on employee compensation, including wage and benefit changes resulting from collective bargaining settlements and management decisions, statistical summaries, and special reports on wage trends. Single copy 45 cents; annual subscription $4.50, foreign mailing $5.75.

The Federal Bonding Program

Manpower Administration flyer of questions and answers tells the what, why, where, who, and when of the program under which a Government-paid bond can be obtained by anyone who cannot get a job because he is unable to obtain a bond.

Handbook of Labor Statistics 1971

Makes available in one volume the major series of labor statistics produced by Bureau of Labor Statistics. In general, each table begins with earliest reliable and consistent data and runs through calendar year 1970. Related series from other governmental agencies and foreign countries are included. $3.25.

Young Workers and Their Earnings

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin, based on information obtained by Bureau of the Census through mail questionnaire completed by persons 16 to 21 years of age in civilian noninstitutional population in calendar week ending October 18, 1969. Special Labor Force Report 132.

Employment of School-Age Youth

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin, 12th in series on this subject, is based on supplementary questions in October 1969 Current Population Survey by Bureau of the Census. Contains text, tabular material, and explanatory note. Data relate to persons 16 to 24 years of age in civilian noninstitutional population in calendar week ending October 17, 1970. Special Labor Force Report 135.

The Employment Problems of Older Workers

Bulletin, prepared by Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1971 White House Conference on Aging, attempts to present in text and tables balanced picture of positive and negative aspects of older worker's position in labor market as reflected in latest available data, usually 1970 or 1971. Most tables give comparative data for earlier periods. Bulletin 1721. 50 cents.

Municipal Labor-Management Relations: Chronology of Compensation Developments in Milwaukee, 1960-70

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin presents summary of major changes in salaries and supplementary benefits that have taken place from 1960 to 1970 for municipal employees subject to regulations of Milwaukee Common Council, the city's governing body. Includes general city employees subject to City Service Commission rules and employees subject to rules of Fire and Police Commission. Bulletin 1720. $1.25.

Employee Compensation and Payroll Hours

Two bulletins present results of Bureau of Labor Statistics studies of employer expenditures for compensation of employees. Data are tabulated for all employees, and separately for office and nonoffice workers.

Report 398: Women's Hosiery Manufacturing, 1969

Report 399: Bituminous Coal Mining, 1969

Wanted: Manpower to Provide Clean Water for America

Five-page leaflet outlines careers as operators in wastewater technology in both municipal and industrial wastewater treatment plants throughout country. Lists where to apply for on-the-job training programs. Available free from Division of Manpower and Training, Federal Water Quality Administration, Washington, D.C. 20242.

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One of Alaska's greatest untapped natural resources is a native population that lives a subsistence existence in tiny, isolated villages scattered across the vast reaches of the State. To assess these resources and to link the Alaska natives to training and jobs, a survey team is traveling to the villages by plane, boat, snowmobile, and dog team. The story is on page 14.

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